



NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA

THESIS

**TERRORISM AWARENESS AND EDUCATION AS A
PREVENTION STRATEGY FOR FIRST RESPONDERS**

by

Alicia L. Welch

March 2006

Thesis Advisor:
Second Reader:

Lauren Wollman
Roxanne Bercik

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STRATEGY FOR FIRST RESPONDERS**

Alicia L. Welch
Fire Captain, Los Angeles Fire Department
B.A., California State University, Long Beach, 1990

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**NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
March 2006**

Author: Alicia Leane Welch

Approved by: Lauren Wollman, Ph.D.
Thesis Advisor

Roxanne Bercik, Assistant Fire Chief
Second Reader

Douglas Porch, Ph.D.
Chairman, Department of National Security Affairs

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ABSTRACT

Fire service personnel are ideally suited to contribute to the concerted national effort of homeland security. If they intend to be an effective component of this effort then a revamping of existing preparedness activities must occur. This thesis will analyze the effectiveness of the Los Angeles Fire Departments counterterrorism efforts to date. The central argument is that much more needs to be accomplished in the area of prevention strategies.

The way ahead will require an analysis of the impediments to change which continue to obstruct the department's progress toward preventative measures. Barriers discussed herein are leadership, firefighting culture, lack of training and educational opportunities, and ineffective use of community involvement.

The citizens of the United States have benefited from awareness and prevention programs in the past. Three models were considered to determine which attributes could be extracted and used to construct the foundation for a terrorism prevention model. Frameworks used in some nationally recognized agendas were studied in order to draw information for the development of a terrorism awareness program for first responders. Relative to each of these issues, a recommended course of action specific to the LAFD will be outlined in considerable detail.

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I. INTRODUCTION

On July 16, 2002, President George W. Bush approved the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. In this strategy, homeland security is defined as “a concerted national effort to prevent terrorist attacks within the United States, reduce America’s vulnerability to terrorism, and minimize the damage and recover from attacks that do occur.”¹ Firefighters, paramedics, and emergency medical technicians are ideally suited to contribute to this concerted national effort. The fire service profession has traditionally been organized and trained to perform as a “reactionary” service, however, and one that usually responds to an incident only after it has reached emergency status. If the fire service intends to be an effective component of the national effort to secure our communities from terrorism, then a complete revamping of existing policies, training and field duties must occur. Traditional mindsets and field operations must give way to more “proactive” efforts calculated to prevent or interrupt terrorist activities rather than simply to respond after an attack has been initiated.

Since the attacks of September 11, 2001, local fire, police and emergency medical agencies throughout the nation have been challenged to redefine their missions concerning the newly-recognized vulnerabilities to terrorist activities. Even proven disaster preparedness models have required modifications to include this new reality. In most established institutions, change is difficult and requires the commitment and dedication of organizational leadership as well as the appropriate training of line personnel. The challenges now faced by the fire service will necessarily involve deliberate and innovative change, some of which is operational and some cultural.

Fortunately, the fire service can benefit from existing models of successful institutional change associated with extra-departmental pressures. One such model is the Community Oriented Policing effort that successfully developed a community relations approach to policing and implemented it universally in order to bridge the gap between police and citizens. Another major example of successful change is the “Drug Abuse

¹ Office of Homeland Security, *National Strategy for Homeland Security* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 2002), 2.

Resistance Education” (DARE) program in which law enforcement efforts were redirected from arresting offenders towards a proactive intervention of younger school children before they engaged in drug-related criminal activity.

For more than a century, professional fire service personnel have been trained, equipped, and practiced in responding to emergencies in progress, be they natural or man-made. Over the last 35 years the fire service has learned to participate in the public dialogue, legislative processes and code enforcement as effective means of fire prevention. Such a shift from a reactive to proactive approach is significant. The 1973 “America Burning” report emphasized the need for fire safety inspections, public education programs, building code enforcement and other forms of community exchange that proved useful in decreasing life and property loss caused by fire. This is important because it offers an obvious framework in which a terrorism awareness and prevention program can be designed and implemented. Street-level firefighters and emergency medical personnel could easily be trained to recognize certain terrorist-related conditions and rapidly communicate their observations to the appropriate enforcement agency for a more timely intervention, thus preventing or interrupting a potential terrorist attack before it is initiated. This concept is similar to that of fire prevention in that pre-incident inspections are used to identify fire hazards and correct them before they occur.

To date, the Los Angeles Fire Department (LAFD) has committed considerable resources to achieving the mandates of the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. They are relatively recent and untested efforts; but the fact that strategies have been drafted to mobilize and organize the efforts of the LAFD is an important first step. The creation of the Special Operations Division has organized all counter- and anti-terror planning efforts under one umbrella so that better oversight can be achieved. The greatest successes for the department thus far are the improvements in collaboration with their regional partners such as LAPD, LA County Sheriff and Fire Departments, LA County Health, FBI, ICE and many others. The acquisition of response equipment and training has improved the safety of both the first responders and the citizens they serve. There must be a continuing effort toward educating both groups in prevention rather than

response. In order for the LAFD to comply with the *National Strategy* it needs more effective leadership, community interaction, clearly stated missions, organization, and sustained funding and commitment.

This thesis will describe the LAFD's most recent terrorism-related initiatives in order to document them for the first time and to assess their effectiveness; it will identify the institutional impairments and cultural barriers that impede change; examine the most robust and successful models for both prevention-oriented and terrorism-specific policies and programs in order to derive lessons learned; look at the predominant national terrorism and prevention frameworks into which any new terrorism training program would need to be set; and develop the initial recommendations for policies and programs to achieve terrorism prevention competence and awareness both within the LAFD and in the communities it serves.

In addition to identifying the components of a successful terrorism awareness training program through analysis of existing models and programs, a prototype curriculum for such training is provided in Appendix A. As will become clear in following chapters, the training of line personnel in terrorism awareness, identification, and response is only one aspect of a comprehensive anti-terrorism mission within the LAFD or any other fire service; others include endorsement and participation at the leadership level; funding and significant asset allocation; and a community awareness and outreach campaign. Although the body of this work will include discussion of all of these components, the Appendix will address only the first of these, the training curriculum.

First responders, specifically firefighters, are very well-positioned to collect intelligence and report suspicious activity. Firefighters and paramedics are called to potential safe houses and terrorist workshops; education and training will arm them to detect and disrupt the enemy that lives and operates in the community. They first need to receive effective training that includes the following elements:

- The Definition of Terrorism
- Terrorist Threats
- Terrorist Strategies

- Terrorist Tactics
- Terrorist Targets
- Situational Awareness

An effective terrorism awareness training program will also discuss indicators of terrorist planning and connect them to reporting mechanisms for the investigative phase. It is crucial that first responders be taught the notification procedures for accessing law enforcement agency response. The LAFD currently has a reporting system in place via the Terrorism Liaison Officer Program (TLO). All line personnel must be provided training on this program so that suspicious behavior or unusual events noticed on the streets can be investigated by the proper law enforcement authorities who work closely with the TLO officers in the Terrorism Early Warning Group.

The ideas and arguments presented in this thesis are driven by several source documents: national strategies that constitute the bulk of the literature germane to this project. These documents provide the mandate for first responders to participate in the Homeland Security mission, and provide preliminary guidance on the parameters and priorities of such participation. Insofar as the LAFD has exhibited a general resistance or reluctance to change – especially with regard to its mission – this research has relied on a small but important literature on the culture of firefighting. Information on the prevention and terrorism models and frameworks discussed in Chapter III are comprised mostly of editions written by terrorism experts within two McGraw-Hill homeland security textbooks. Contributions come also from a study on COP by the RAND Corporation and from the CERT Participant Handbook. Finally, there is an extensive literature on terrorism itself and the various aspects of its prevention: terrorism recognition techniques, indicators of terrorist activity, and first responder awareness procedures among others; these bear on the composition of the curriculum proposed in Appendix A.

The President of the United States, through the then-Office of Homeland Security, clearly stated the direction of the war on terror in the 2002 *National Strategy for Homeland Security*:

The first priority of homeland security is to prevent terrorist attacks. The United States aims to deter all potential terrorists from attacking America through our uncompromising commitment to defeating terrorism wherever it appears. We also strive to detect terrorists before they strike, to prevent them and their instruments of terror from entering our country, and to take decisive action to eliminate the threat they pose.²

The *National Strategy* goes even further in recognizing the public at large as well as state and local governments as playing a vital role in securing the nation. This was supplemented in June 2003 by the Department of Homeland Security's *Office of Domestic Preparedness (ODP) Guidelines for Homeland Security: Prevention and Deterrence*. In this document, ODP identifies several specific guidelines that reflect a foundation of actions or activities representing a "framework for prevention" that each jurisdiction should consider applying to anti-terrorism activities. These guidelines are flexible and provide for increased and unique functionality of jurisdictions and account for specific threats, vulnerabilities, risks, and available resources. The guidelines represent a set of general activities, objectives, and elements that organizations – and specifically those in command positions within the organizations – should consider in the development of prevention plans.³

The guidelines are divided into five functional categories: Collaboration, Information Sharing, Threat Recognition, Risk Management, and Intervention. The LAFD has made significant progress in its collaborative relationships and information-sharing capabilities with members of allied agencies. The LAFD has fallen short, however, in the critical category of threat recognition. ODP clearly identifies a need for first responders (fire, police, EMS, etc.) to conduct line-level training so that public safety personnel may recognize possible terrorist related behaviors or conditions, and do so in a lawful and effective manner. ODP suggests teaching first responders to recognize "an inventory of behaviors and/or activities that constitute suspicious behavior likely to

² *National Strategy*, 2.

³ U.S. Department of Homeland Security, *Office for Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Homeland Security, Prevention and Deterrence* (Washington, D.C.: GPO, June 2003), 4. As of January 2006, ODP is now known as the Office of Grants and Training (G&T).

forewarn of a pending terrorism conspiracy or plot.”⁴ This project will adopt the guidance of these two essential federal documents to conclude the project with an awareness curriculum geared toward proactive measures.

If the LAFD is to achieve the goals and objectives set out in the *National Strategy*, a fundamental understanding of its traditional culture, folklore and practices is prerequisite. Many government agencies, especially those such as the fire service with deeply-rooted traditions and mindsets, seldom initiate and in fact often resist change. Such resistance constitutes a significant barrier to both progress and innovation, particularly in the organizational setting. Researchers at NASA define organizational culture as “the values, beliefs, rituals, symbols and behaviors we share with others that help define us as a group. Further, a culture’s surface structure consists of the values and beliefs that, in turn, guide a person’s actions; these cultural characteristics are then transmitted to succeeding generations.”⁵ This holds true in the fire service as behaviors, rituals, and symbols are perpetuated from one generation to the next.

In his article entitled “Cultural Changes for Firefighter Safety,” Ed Shepard describes the firefighting culture as being “grounded in heroism and likened to war, where risk-taking is glorified and rewarded, then amplified through the pens of journalists, and passed on to the rookies, decade after decade.”⁶ In short, prevention activities are not as exciting and thrilling as structural firefighting operations. Shepard also suggests that change is predicated on the leadership of the organization and that culture is changed by a series of small steps taken by leading members of the culture at various organizational levels. Accepting these observations as valid, it is clear that critical change within the LAFD to address anti-terrorism will take time; more of an evolution than a revolution. Organizational change will require leadership at all levels, open and effective communications, and a transition from the previous reactionary model

⁴ *Office for Domestic Preparedness Guidelines*, 20.

⁵ Ed Shepard, “Cultural Changes for Firefighter Safety,” *Wildfire Magazine* (April 1999). Available from <http://www.esb.act.gov.au/firebreak/shepard.html> (Accessed 11 November 2004).

⁶ *Ibid.*, par. 7.

to one that is proactive. Such a significant shift must be shared consistently by all levels of the Department and must be consistently reflected in all of the LAFD policies, training and field practices.

Marilyn Arlund completed an applied research project for the National Fire Academy in 1999 as part of the Executive Fire Officer Program. This work draws some compelling conclusions as to inhibitors to prevention, among them lack of training, time, funding, leadership, and other organizational shortfalls.⁷ *Firefighters' Attitudes Toward Fire Prevention Activities* is a strategic analysis of community risk reduction in the Maple Grove Fire Prevention Bureau. Arlund's survey determines that attitudes are learned as a result of past experience by observing other people's attitudes and by being openly taught to hold certain attitudes.

Collectively, these documents and studies illuminate obvious areas of concern for the LAFD, particularly germane to its new role in the war on terrorism. Terry Golway's article "Firefighters" in *American Heritage Magazine* and the *Managing Fire Services* textbook are useful documents for studying the origins of the fire service culture.

An early fire prevention model is the 1947 *Guide to Community Organization for Fire Safety* as promulgated by the President's Conference on Fire Prevention. The objectives of this early guide were threefold: 1) to emphasize the ever-present danger by fire to human life and natural resources, 2) to improve fire safety in every community, and 3) to influence responsible public officials to accept their primary responsibility for leadership in fire safety. There were two basic recommendations: a call for governors of each state to appoint statewide fire safety committees to explore the fire loss problem for the purpose of setting up a practical fire prevention program, and a call upon mayors, city managers, or chief executives of all towns to appoint fire safety committees to carry on a continuous fire safety campaign.

This early document goes on to suggest committee make-up and organization, identifies what to do in terms of soliciting community involvement, and lists special

⁷ Marylyn Arlund, *Firefighter's Attitudes Toward Fire Prevention Activities: Strategic Analysis of Community Risk Reduction* (Emmitsburg, Maryland: National Fire Academy, 1999), 83.

activities to intensify public interest and participation in the campaign.⁸ This document is of particular interest to this thesis because it is instrumental in identifying key components of prevention activities including identifying the threat posed from fire, challenges public officials and leaders to accept the responsibility to address the issue, and involves politicians from all levels to participate in the solution to America's fire problem. This foundational work is very pertinent to addressing America's new challenges posed by terrorism.

Despite the early efforts of the president's 1947 Conference on Fire Prevention, however, the nation continued to suffer from a severe fire problem throughout the next three decades. In 1971, President Richard Nixon approved the National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control to study the fire problem and make recommendations "whereby the Nation can reduce the destruction of life and property caused by fire in the cities, suburbs, communities, and elsewhere."⁹ The study is of particular significance to this project because it was the first report to specifically identify solutions to the Nation's fire problem. It identified the following objectives: to marshal scientific and monetary resources, to increase public education opportunities, to set standards for fire safety, to explore technological advances, and to improve inspection procedures. Recruiting a diverse workforce, improving firefighting equipment, increasing training opportunities, standardizing policies and procedures, setting goals to address problems, and allocating funds to devise programs were also recommendations generated by this report.¹⁰

More recently, the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) conducted a formal study called "America At Risk: America Burning Recommissioned" in which the role of local fire service was reoriented to more effectively control fire risks and establish fire prevention protocols.¹¹ Here again we have a highly successful and proactive model

⁸ *The President's Conference on Fire Prevention: A Guide to Community Organization for Fire Safety* (Washington, D.C., 1947), 2-8.

⁹ National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control, "America Burning: Report" (Washington, D.C.; U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), 1-9.

¹⁰ Ibid, 2-9.

¹¹ United States Fire Administration and Federal Emergency Management Agency, *America at Risk: America Burning Recommissioned* (Emmitsburg, Maryland: National Fire Academy, 2002), 6.

that offers tremendous insight and empirical information concerning institutional change, as well as the lessons learned of prevention-related policies.

In this earlier effort, a series of topics were discussed in five different hearings in cities scattered across the nation. The main topics included standardization, inspection procedures, technological advances, and governmental involvement. In 1973, the Commission issued its landmark report “America Burning” which details the unacceptably high life and property losses from fire. The report highlights the need for federal government involvement and cites nearly 100 recommendations for change in the fire service. The report enjoyed nationwide acceptance and later became the catalyst for Public Law 93-498, the Federal Fire Prevention and Control Act of 1974.¹² The United States Fire Administration (USFA) was created shortly after the passage of the Act of 1974 and has been integrated into fire management and risk reduction programs ever since. These two reports, and legislation that stemmed from them, are important to the LAFD because they offer a framework that will assist the fire service in finding solutions to the current threat of terrorism.

In late 1999, FEMA reconstituted the National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control in an effort to further reduce loss from injury and fire. The director of FEMA, James Lee Witt, wrote, “the commission will fulfill an essential role in the initiation of a much needed, and long-awaited, national effort to continue tangible reductions in our country’s losses to fire. Equally importantly, it will also provide a critical framework for the evolving role of the fire services in the safety and sustainability of today’s American Communities...Your panel will recommend an approach to an updated and renewed vision of the fire service community.”¹³ During the first meeting of the Commission, the panel determined it would be vital to go beyond the boundaries of fire risk alone and explore additional hazards, including terrorist attack.

A very significant recommendation emanating from the report relative to prevention and antiterrorism is Finding Number 7: Public Education and Awareness,

¹² “America Burning,” 7.

¹³ *America at Risk*, 6.

which states that FEMA/USFA should develop and support a multi-hazard public awareness strategy that advances safety and messages for all risks to which fire departments respond.¹⁴ As in the original “America Burning” findings, emergency medical service response was identified as deficient, as fire departments moved toward a dual-response service. This commission was faced with the all-hazard challenges, both man-made and natural.

There is a plethora of courses and texts available on terrorism from which to build a curriculum on terrorism awareness. Most anti-terrorism sources that might be relevant to first responders are oriented to WMD response rather than pre-incident preparedness. The Emergency Response to Terrorism course sponsored by U.S Department of Justice, FEMA, and USFA, for example, does not make reference to recognition strategies or indicators of suspicious activity.¹⁵ This is unfortunate given the fact that prevention of terrorist attacks is the primary goal of the *National Strategy*.

In ODP’s *Guidelines for Homeland Security: Prevention and Deterrence*, awareness and recognition training are recommended for police, fire, and EMS personnel. Malcolm Nance, author of *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, argues that “terrorist operations are observable, their preparations can be detected, and attacks can be stopped before they begin.”¹⁶ The *Handbook* addresses the full range of terrorists planning behaviors, including tactics, strategies, preparations, surveillance techniques, tools, training, and ideologies. Firefighters will be better prepared to detect terrorist planning activities if educated on those behaviors common to terrorists in the pre-attack phase.

Paul Maniscalco and Hank Christen further point out that “scene awareness principles begin before the response in any incident (routine or terrorism),” in their book *Understanding Terrorism and Managing the Consequences*, and they suggest that first responders should be familiar with the neighborhood, the surroundings, the violence

¹⁴ *America at Risk*, 24.

¹⁵ U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Federal Emergency Management Agency, United States Fire Administration, *Emergency Response to Terrorism Self Study* (Emmitsburg, Maryland: National Fire Academy, 1999), table.

¹⁶ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorism Recognition Guidebook* (Guilford, Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), preface.

history in the area, gang involvement, scheduled special events, recent political action, and scheduled religious ceremonies in any community.¹⁷ This accords with the precepts of Community-Oriented Policing that will prove so fundamental to this paper's recommendations.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and DHS jointly developed the *Terrorist Threats to the U.S. Homeland Reporting Guide* (TTRG) with the purpose of leveraging the vast information-collection and -reporting resources of our state, local, and tribal first responder partners to recognize activities or conditions that may be indicative of terrorist activity. This guide suggests that local organizations are on the front lines in the war on terror and therefore have a critical role as primary sources of information: "Timely and relevant information from the front lines is critical to the identification of terrorists and their supporters, development of insights into their plans and intentions, and subsequent disruption of their operations."¹⁸ This material is critical to the development of antiterrorism education for first responders as they engage in the concerted national effort to protect the homeland against terrorism.

Finally, the National Center for State and Local Law Enforcement Training and ODP offer their Anti-Terrorism Intelligence Awareness Training Program, which discusses physical characteristics of the tools of terrorism, behavioral patterns exhibited by terrorists, and media used by terrorists. First responders will be much better prepared to report suspicious behaviors once educated about the particular characteristics, tactics, and behaviors used by terrorists.¹⁹

¹⁷ Hank Christen and Paul Maniscalco, *Understanding Terrorism and Managing the Consequences* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2002), 45.

¹⁸ Federal Bureau of Investigation and Department of Homeland Security, *Terrorist Threats to the U.S. Homeland: Reporting Guide* (n.p., n.d.), Available from <http://www.leo.gov>.

¹⁹ Office of Homeland Security, *Anti-Terrorism Intelligence Awareness Training Program: Resources for the Law Enforcement Officer* (Washington, D.C., n.d.), Ch. 6.

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II. CURRENT POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN THE LAFD

In 2005, the LAFD created an entire division to oversee its homeland security programs. The Special Operations Division was launched at the beginning of the year and has received recent approval from the Mayor's office for an additional 20 officer positions. The LAFD has made great strides to combat terrorism in a relatively short period of time. These programs, along with several others, indicate that LAFD has in fact accepted its new role in terrorism deterrence; but despite all that has been done, its efforts have fallen short in meeting the President's primary goal of prevention. Line personnel have essentially been excluded from many of the contemporary programs created to deal with terrorism.

Many causes of America's fire problem were listed in the *America Burning* report and are very similar to today's failures in preventing terrorism:

There are fire department administrators who pay lip service to fire prevention and then do little to promote it. The public shares their unconcern, for in the public's image – an image which firefighters share – the fire department is a heroic-proportioned battalion of people rescuers and fire suppressors, not a professional corps of fire preventers.²⁰

An example of such "lip service" was demonstrated in 2005 when the administration made the decision to reduce staffing levels of the Fire Safety and Education Unit: the unit responsible for administering the Community Emergency Response Team program to the residents of Los Angeles.

Additionally, LAFD administrators have failed to communicate their counterterrorism strategy to line-level personnel in their haste to create a structure to combat terrorism. Furthermore, no vision of this new mission has been shared with the rank and file. What has been clear, however, is the department's commitment to prepare to respond as noted in the increase in field and tabletop exercises.

To compound this, resources necessary for the prevention of terrorism are costly; since there has not yet been a successful significant attack in Los Angeles, funding for

²⁰ "America Burning," 2.

prevention has not been a priority. The purchase of new equipment and technology seems to be a much more tangible investment to department administrators.

A. LAFD SPECIAL OPERATIONS DIVISION

Los Angeles is the largest metropolitan area on the west coast and is thus a high-visibility and high-priority target for terrorist acts. The city has already been the target of at least one significant terrorist threat that was fortunately detected and interrupted at the Canadian border.²¹ It is likely that the city will be targeted again, so it is imperative not only to be prepared to respond to attack, but also to take steps to circumvent any planned attacks. As with most public safety and emergency response agencies, the LAFD must recognize, accept and prepare for the critical tasks associated with being placed on the “front lines” of terrorism.

The LAFD has a unique and impressive experience base with regard to certain man-made and natural disasters; this practical knowledge must now be expanded to include acts of terrorism in terms of detection, prevention and large-scale emergency responses. It is essential that the continuing efforts of the LAFD closely match the national and global objectives in combating terrorist activities. Clearly, the LAFD and its counterparts in L.A. or elsewhere have much yet to accomplish, particularly in terms of prevention and preparedness planning. In this chapter, the current state of preparedness and the future needs of the LAFD will be identified and measured against the national framework of strategies and initiatives.

To date, the LAFD is responding to some extent to the challenges posed in the post- 9/11 threat environment. The primary accomplishment in this area by the LAFD has been the creation of the Special Operation Division (SOD); this new task force consists of three sections, as illustrated in Table 1.

²¹ Mark A. Sauter and James J. Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 29.

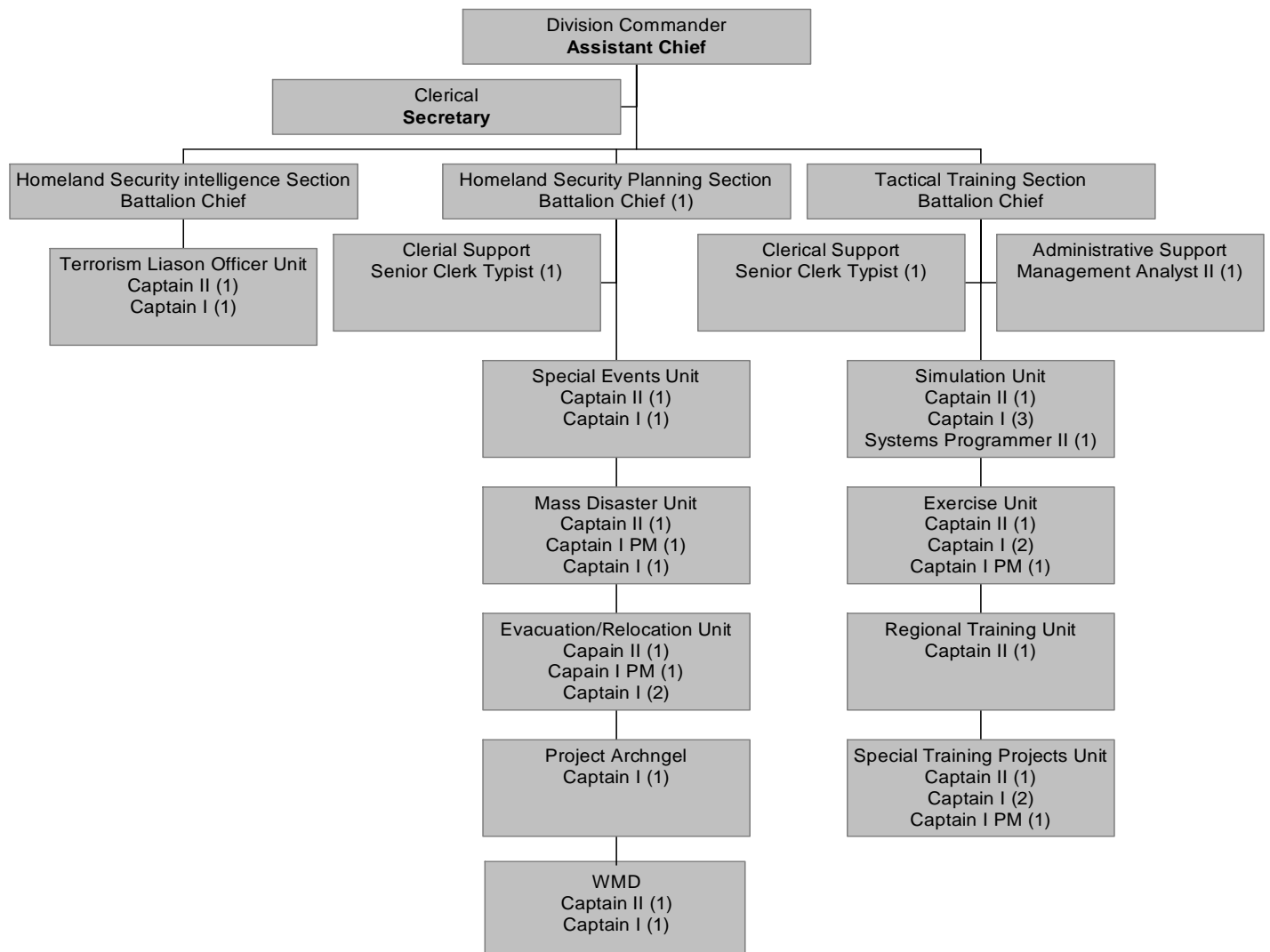


Table 1. LAFD Special Operations Division Organization Chart (Draft) (From: LAFD SOD, Special Events Unit, Captain II David Thompson)

As the SOD is so new, very few people are aware of its existence, structure, or mission. The SOD is headed by an LAFD Division Commander. This position comports with incident command structure guidelines and supports common span of control requirements. Under this new command, the LAFD has designated three sections: Homeland Security Intelligence Section, Homeland Security Planning Section, and the Tactical Training Section, each with its own missions and responsibilities.

The Homeland Security Intelligence Section is headed by an LAFD Battalion Chief with internal clerical support. This section conducts inter-agency liaison work concerning threat information and assessments. It typically processes confidential information concerning national security issues, and thus personnel assigned to this section must qualify for high-level security clearances.

The mission of the Homeland Security Intelligence Section has several components. It oversees the functions of the LAFD Terrorism Liaison Officer Unit, and represents the LAFD in the Los Angeles Terrorism Early Warning (TEW) Group – a networked, multi-agency mechanism for analyzing and disseminating intelligence and terrorism-related information. The Intelligence Section not only works with the TEW, but also functions independently as a fully-integrated intelligence center capable of gathering, evaluating, and disseminating terrorist-related data in support of LAFD operations, including fire suppression, emergency medical responses and other threats to public safety. This branch of the SOD identifies and responds to potential terrorist-related activity with emphasis on detection, prevention and mitigation. Lastly, it serves as a central LAFD repository for terrorism-related information with emphasis on internal and allied agency communications, including the timely notification to LAFD units of information or conditions that may affect field operations.

The Homeland Security Planning Section, like the Intelligence Section, is headed by an LAFD Battalion Chief with internal clerical support. There are five specialized units under this command, including Special Events, Mass Disaster, Evacuation/Relocation and Weapons of Mass Destruction units, and Project Archangel. The mission of the Homeland Security Planning Section is wide, and includes establishing the procedures for, coordinating and responding to mass casualty, WMD,

and natural disaster incidents. This Unit is concerned with the evacuation and relocation of citizens in the event of a large-scale man-made or natural disaster, and also provides advanced emergency response planning for large-scale events, high-profile or -target venues, VIP/dignitary protection, and coordination with tactical law enforcement operations.

The Planning Section strives to achieve both site-specific incident management and broader regional issues to integrate homeland security, emergency management, law enforcement, firefighting, public works, public health and safety, EMS, and the private sector into a unified structure. This is directly related to providing advanced planning for the coordination of local, regional, and large-scale evacuations including temporary and long term relocation of evacuees. It is presently working in partnership with the LAPD and the Department of Homeland Security to develop a Critical Asset Protection Program for the nation's infrastructure.

The third branch of the SOD is the Tactical Training Section, again directed by an LAFD Battalion Chief with internal clerical and administrative support; it has four specialized units under this command, including Simulation, Exercise, Regional Training, and Special Training Projects units.

The mission areas of the Tactical Training Section begin with planning, designing and implementing both table-top and field training exercises based on terrorism-related scenarios, including contemporary threat assessments and high-risk targets. This section provides scenario-based "command and control" training exercises, including practical applications of the Incident Command System (ICS) and the Unified Incident Command System, and coordinates regional training opportunities for local first responders, including instructor skills, fire prevention, incident management and terrorism awareness. This section is ideally suited to incorporate a recognition and awareness program for line-level personnel. Monthly training and networking opportunities for the Los Angeles Terrorism Liaison Officers are provided by this section, as well as educational seminars addressing terrorist threats, prevention, deterrence and preparedness, including incident mitigation, response and recovery.

B. SMART PRACTICES: TEW, TLO, AND ARCHANGEL

The Los Angeles Terrorism Early Warning (TEW) Group is nationally recognized as a multi-discipline, multi-agency mechanism that draws together a local network of public and private agencies serving multiple fusion functions and provides information on indicators and warnings, operational assessments, and threat assessments of special events with attack potential. LAFD has been an active participant in the group since 1998.²²

Inability to “connect the dots” has been at the root of intelligence failures in the past. The LA TEW is a multilateral, multi-disciplinary effort where agencies are co-located to monitor open-source data to identify trends and potential threats, and where net assessments are produced to improve decision making processes during actual terrorist events. Members of the TEW also monitor specific threat information during periods of heightened concern so the information can be transferred to line personnel charged with protecting the citizens of Los Angeles County. Additionally, the members work together to complete vulnerability and target assessments so that comprehensive Risk Information Folders can be developed for use by incident commanders during field operations.

The TEW is widely known because it is the first program of its kind to implement and sustain a collaborative information sharing program both pre- and post-9/11. This program is particularly unique and effective because it has incorporated several components into its fusion efforts, including a planning framework, response phases and intelligence cycles, networked response (there is no entity in charge), indications and warnings monitoring, and monthly plenary sessions. It created a “playbook committee” for the development of response guides for WMD and critical infrastructure attacks, emerging threat committee to explore evolving threats from emerging weapons, and the net assessment group which develops situational awareness for the unified command staff working at actual incidents. The TEW has proven that great strides can be made when diverse groups work together to solve complex problems. The Los Angeles Urban Area

²² John P. Sullivan, “The Local Need for Intelligence and Warning,” in *Bioterrorism: Homeland Security, The Next Steps*, Conference Proceedings, February 8-10, 2004, 1-7. Available from <http://www.rand.org/nsrd/bioterror/index.html>. Accessed on 1/10/2006.

Terrorism Liaison Officer (TLO) Program was created and implemented by the LAFD in March 2005. This program is designed as an information sharing mechanism for internal and external partners in the Los Angeles regional area. Dedicated staff positions have been committed to this effort. The two LAFD captains assigned to this position are located in the TEW and work collaboratively with the various response agencies involved. The TLO's primary function is to be the link for information traveling both from the TEW and the street. For example, if a firefighter observes a suspicious person conducting surveillance operations near the runway at LAX, he or she can report it to the TLO who can then report it to the JTTF for further investigation. Conversely, if the TLO members assigned at the TEW notice trends and potential threats in their daily open source analysis, the TLO can report that information to field personnel so they can adjust operational procedures as needed.

Operation Archangel is a program sponsored by the Department of Homeland Security aimed at critical infrastructure protection, threat assessment, and special event operational planning within the City of Los Angeles. The LAFD has had dedicated staff working with the LAPD and other homeland security partners for nearly two years. This program was developed with multiple state and federal agency involvement, and designed in cooperation with the Department of Homeland Security and the Office of Domestic Preparedness. Archangel is another multi-agency/multi-disciplinary approach to terrorism prevention, deterrence, response, and mitigation. The crux of the program seeks to identify critical assets within the Los Angeles region, thus planning multi-agency/multi-disciplinary prevention, deterrence, response, and consequence management activities accordingly.

Archangel is similar in its mission to the TEW because the staff works to create Readiness Information Folders for key assets and critical infrastructure sites throughout the county. One of the most important assignments carried out by Archangel is a prototype interoperable database for storage and sharing of critical information related to critical infrastructure protection and response. The program is called Archangel Critical Asset Management System or ACAMS. Once this program has been tested and approved it will be distributed for use by other high-risk municipalities.

On the surface these programs seem very effective, but they are new and traditional “turf issues” slow progress. For example, although the three programs appear to be working together toward a common goal, they continue to be very protective of their individual accomplishments. Also, many of the law enforcement representatives refuse to accept that fire service professionals have similar needs for information and intelligence.

C. IMPEDIMENTS, GAPS, AND WEAKNESSES

While it is apparent that the LAFD SOD represents a significant advance in counter-terrorism management, the effort is largely oriented to response strategies for events already in progress or over. The central argument of this paper is that much more needs to be accomplished in the area of prevention strategies. This challenges the LAFD to re-assess its traditional, reactive sensibility and institute a more pro-active leadership style. There appear to be four primary impediments to achieving full leadership and innovation in terrorism prevention: culture, effective leadership, lack of line-level training and education programs, and lack of community participation.

1. Culture

There are many cultural factors that have impacted the timing and contours of previous prevention and public safety efforts in the fire service. Some of those factors have had a negative influence on this effort; these include the service’s historical development; cultural issues of homogeneity, conformity, and “groupthink;” lack of staffing resources; and funding and scheduling challenges. This chapter will discuss these influences in further detail with the intent of identifying barriers to the creation of a terrorism prevention program in the LAFD.

Taking all of these programs into consideration, it appears the LAFD has come a long way to defend its community from terrorist attack. But preparedness is much more than information sharing and collaboration. Preparedness also includes intervention, threat recognition and risk management. The LAFD has worked and planned in those areas that are familiar including tabletop and field exercises; incident command and

control; partnerships with allied agencies; the purchase of new equipment and technology to improve response capabilities and other common functions.

Despite these actions, the LAFD has missed two critical components of preparedness: threat recognition and intervention. It is difficult to prepare for what you cannot see or for what has not yet happened. Allocating resources to identify an unknown enemy is risky. There are several barriers that prevent administrators from focusing on all the components of preparedness; complacency, indifference, ignorance and conservatism keep administrators from engaging in a more well-rounded approach to dealing with terrorism.

As mentioned above, the LAFD has made great strides toward defeating terrorism over the last few years; an inventory of new tools, equipment and staff testify to that. A sense of complacency has set in as low level goals have been reached relatively quickly, and the department moves on to the next issue, expecting the same results.

Few people on the west coast have been directly affected by terrorism, as there has not been a serious attack in this region. The department's focus is shifted on a daily basis to its routine concerns such as response times, budget hearings, and allegations of discrimination. Finding money to prevent something from which we do not perceive a direct or immediate threat is overshadowed by more pertinent issues.

There are programs and policies that attempt to prevent terrorist attacks from happening in the first place. The states of Washington and New Jersey have been proactive in seeking out the operatives before they are able to strike. ODP has stated that teaching responders to recognize threats will help to deter terrorism in our homeland; ignorance is no excuse to settle on response and recovery when there are options for prevention.

"Conservatism associated with the bureaucratic structure and the cost of proposed innovations are also cited as factors that inhibit innovation," according to the authors of *Managing Fire Services*.²³ Prevention costs money. Prevention is difficult to measure

²³ Ronny J. Coleman and John A. Granito (eds.), *Managing Fire Services* 2nd ed., (Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, 1988), 408.

for effectiveness; and typically when a problem is solved, for example reductions in lives lost due to fire, resources are reallocated to other areas. Perhaps these are some barriers to contend with, in addition to determining the obstacles to adopting prevention as a strategy.

“First in, last out;” “Go hard or go home;” “L.A. City’s Finest;” these slogans are frequently heard among LAFD firefighters. A look into the history of firefighting in America provides a context in which to understand these phrases and the attitudes they reflect.

The earliest firefighters in America were volunteers. It was not until March 10, 1853, that the City of Cincinnati voted for a paid fire department, though in 1678 the city of Boston hired and paid one full-time “captain of the rig” to staff the first known fire engine in the United States.²⁴ Prior to the Cincinnati initiative, volunteer fire companies existed in cities up and down the East coast, and quickly became tightly-knit social groups in their townships. These volunteer corps were characterized by tremendous pride, competitiveness, and influence both in their volunteer positions and as members of their communities.²⁵

This pride and competitiveness would later prove pivotal in the transformation from volunteer to paid fire departments. Bitter rivalries became so intense that fistfights and riots were normal occurrences as fire companies jockeyed for position at conflagrations.²⁶ It was then, and still is today, considered a disgrace to be beaten by another company responding to an incident. In fact, fire companies were known to interfere with and sometimes trick other companies who might beat them to a blaze. Eventually business owners and residents grew tired of the volunteer firefighters’ mischief. A fire in a Cincinnati wood-planing mill in 1851 set into motion the events that led to the hiring of America’s first paid firefighters: the mill burned to the ground as more

²⁴ Coleman and Granito (eds.), *Managing Fire Services*, 24.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Terry Golway, “Firefighters,” *American Heritage Magazine* (Nov./Dec. 2005), 7. Available from http://www.americanheritage.com/articles/magazine/ah/2005/6/2005_6_36.shtml. (Accessed December 26, 2005).

than ten fire companies muscled for position. Two years later the citizens of Cincinnati were successful in their efforts to prevent similar situations as city officials were forced to convert their fire forces to a paid department.²⁷

The 9/11 attacks on New York, Washington, and Pennsylvania directed much attention to the courage, sacrifice, and dedication to duty that firefighters exhibit in the face of almost certain death or injury. But before that horrific day “they certainly were worthy of admiration, for they were expected to respond instantly to an alarm, and more often than not, that meant leaving their homes at night, when more fires occur, and returning hours later – wet, cold, and exhausted, with no reward other than the admiration of fellow citizens and the camaraderie of their fellow firefighters.”²⁸

The firefighter of previous generations was one who primarily fought fires and on occasion performed a difficult rescue.²⁹ Today’s fire professional has a much more complicated job. First, incident types vary from emergency medical services, hazardous materials, and swift water rescues to confined space rescues, floods, and electrical problems. Secondly, both natural and manmade disasters demand the time and attention of fire department training scenarios. Finally, community involvement demands and station and apparatus maintenance responsibilities leave little time for prevention-related activities. A culture that espouses machismo, heroism, activity, and competition is antithetical – at least on the face of it – to the methodical, tedious, “quiet” tasks of prevention and education. Despite LAFD’s prior successes in fire prevention and outreach programs, there remains a deeply-rooted ethos that prefers action to thought, tactic to strategy, response to prevention, and putting out a blaze to anything else.

2. Leadership, Training and Education

David Butler was quoted in *The Leadership Challenge*: “You need to give people on the front lines proper vision and proper training, and then follow that up with

²⁷ Coleman and Granito (eds.), *Managing Fire Services*, 24.

²⁸ Golway, “Firefighters,” 6.

²⁹ Gerald Loren Fishkin, Ph. D., *Firefighter and Paramedic Burnout* (Gardena, CA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Legal and Professional Publications, Inc., 1989), 8.

responsibility so they can act on decisions.”³⁰ This quote perfectly isolates two critical components that have been neglected by LAFD leadership. First, no clear vision has been presented to personnel on the front lines to direct them, or even include them, in ongoing counterterrorism efforts. Second, no training has been provided to line personnel, but rather has been offered only to captains, chiefs and partners from allied agencies. For example, WMD and TLO training was given only to those members in the officers ranks.

Kouzes and Posner identify in their book *The Leadership Challenge* five fundamental practices that enable leaders to get extraordinary things done: to challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart.³¹ Challenging the process involves changing the status quo, and creating prevention-based programs to deal with terrorism when response-based programs are the norm. Leaders must inspire a shared vision – combating terrorism is not going to be accomplished by the efforts of the SOD alone. Line personnel are valuable resources that want to participate, but not without vision, training and education. John M. Bryson wrote: “Mission, in other words, clarifies an organization’s purpose; vision clarifies what it should look like and how it should behave as it fulfills its mission.”³² The current mission of the LAFD was written pre-9/11; updating it and clearly communicating a vision will better guide the LAFD toward a more secure future, free from terrorism. Enabling others to act, in this case, suggests that the LAFD should empower its workforce to get involved with this new mission. By training and educating them to recognize threats they can interdict those threats in the planning stages. Leaders go first; they model the way for others to follow. The LAFD has accomplished a lot with the creation of the SOD, but should be frontrunner in the creation of a terrorism awareness program for first responders, citizens, and public works officials. Leaders encourage the hearts of their constituents to carry on. Just as the faculty and staff at the Center for

³⁰ James Kouzes and Barry Posner, *The Leadership Challenge* (Boulder, CO: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1995), 12.

³¹ Ibid, 9.

³² John M. Bryson, *Strategic Planning for Public and Nonprofit Organizations*, 3rd Edition (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004), 102.

Homeland Defense and Security encourage their students to fight the good fight, LAFD leaders need to encourage their workforce to participate in the battle against terrorism.

3. No Community Participation

Many successful community-based programs have been (or will be) discussed in this paper. These programs have been recognized because they capitalized on the partnership between public servants and the citizens. The LAFD has been successful in the past with its CERT and Adopt-a-Fire Station programs. These two programs focused on solving problems for both parties while improving conditions for all involved. Furthermore, both programs empower the citizens and responders to enhance the quality of life in the community. A terrorism awareness program will accomplish the same thing. By teaching responders and citizens to recognize indicators of terrorist planning operations and how to report those operations, both the responders and citizens will prevent terrorist attacks from ever taking place.

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III. RELEVANT PREVENTION AND TERRORISM MODELS

It is more cost-effective in terms of time, money, and lives to prevent attacks than to respond to them. The citizens of the United States have benefited significantly from public awareness and injury prevention programs over the past thirty years. This chapter will examine three programs that have effectively solved community and organizational problems through the creation of productive partnerships: Community Oriented Policing (COP), Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.), and Community Emergency Response Teams (C.E.R.T.). In addition, two current prevention-based antiterrorism programs – the Washington Statewide Homeland Security Plan and the New Jersey Office of Counterterrorism – offer a valuable template for incorporating terrorism prevention into the LAFD.

A. COMMUNITY ORIENTED POLICING

The U.S. Department of Justice defines community-oriented policing as collaboration between the police and the community to identify and solve community problems at the grassroots and causal level.³³ Researchers at RAND determined that “such collaboration helps develop better relationships and mutual understanding between police officers and community members, which in turn help in solving community problems.”³⁴ Indeed, the *National Strategy for Homeland Security* identifies citizens and first responders as the “concerted national effort” that will win the global war on terror.³⁵

The community policing philosophy is that police agencies should not only cooperate with citizens and communities, but should also actively solicit input and participation from them.³⁶ The foundation of community policing comes from the early 19th century, but COP originated out of an official federal program authorized under the

³³ Russell W. Glenn, et al., *Training the 21st Century Police Officer: Redefining Police Professionalism for the Los Angeles Police Department* (Santa Monica, CA: RAND, 2003).

³⁴ Ibid, 92.

³⁵ *National Strategy for Homeland Security*, 2.

³⁶ Glenn, *Training the 21st Century Police Officer*.

Violent Crime Act of 1994.³⁷ Congress approved millions of dollars to increase staffing levels and to purchase technology for the prevention of crime. Other prevention models existed before COP, including team policing and problem-oriented policing; COP placed greater emphasis on building community partnerships, however, and has remained the predominant model ever since.

Los Angeles Police Chief William Bratton has described Community Oriented Policing as "...the three Ps: partnership (with the community), problem solving (with the community), and prevention (of crime in the community)."³⁸ As part of its community policing effort to improve citizen/police partnerships, the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) has created several programs that encourage cooperation between officers and citizens: Community-Police Advisory Boards; Senior Lead Officer Mentor Program; Area Senior Lead Officer Summits; Police and Community Collaborative Teams; Neighborhood Prosecutor Program; Neighborhood Council; Police Magnet Program; LAPD Online website; and the LA Community Policing website. These programs have continued to evolve since the 1990s and have improved community relations with the citizens while decreasing crime at the same time.

The LAFD has adopted this philosophy and designed a robust community relations agenda. In an effort to cultivate positive relationships with the communities it serves, LAFD created the Adopt-a-Fire Station Program; Learn Not To Burn (School Outreach Program); Risk Watch; Junior Fire Setters; LAFD Online website; LA C.E.R.T. website; LAFD Fire Explorer Program; and the LAFD Bicycle Paramedic Program. The details of each of these programs is beyond the scope of relevance for this project, but the salient point is that the LAFD has exhibited through these initiatives an awareness of the indispensability of community outreach and partnership in any successful prevention campaign.

³⁷ Niki Raapana, "Community Policing: What is community policing?" The Anti-Communitarian League, April 2004, 4. Available from <http://nord.twu.net/acl/comm policing.html>. Accessed 19 February 2006.

³⁸ Glenn, *Training the 21st Century Police Officer*, 97.

These examples also highlight the imagination and creativity that have been tapped in the city of Los Angeles as a means of building strong partnerships between the community and public servants. These relationships will prove useful as first responders search for innovative ways to prevent terrorist activity today and into the future. This is especially true considering the high level of public trust and cooperation necessary to detect, report, deter, and prevent potential terrorist activity in all its political and cultural sensitivity.

The second “P” in Chief Bratton’s definition of community policing is problem-solving. According to the RAND Corporation, “problem solving is the practical application of community policing.”³⁹ Many different problem-solving models are used by police and fire departments throughout the country, but the most common model is called SARA, which stands for *scanning* for the problem, *analyzing* the specific elements of the problem, developing and implementing *responses* to the problem, and *assessing* the efforts made toward solving the problem. Several important components of this model feature characteristics of problem solving and state:

1. COP should be the standard operating method and not just an occasional project (in other words, must be institutionalized with funding, staffing, and integration);
2. COP should be practiced by personnel throughout the ranks, not just by specialists and managers (in other words, requiring the participation of line-level as well as leadership-level personnel);
3. COP should be empirical in the sense that decisions are made on the basis of information gathered systematically (and that in the anti-terrorism context will require information collection and reporting mechanisms and protocols, as well as recognition and awareness training by relevant personnel);
4. Whenever possible, COP should involve collaboration between police and other agencies and institutions (such as the existing TEW and TLO initiatives); and

³⁹ Glenn., *Training the 21st Century Police Officer*, 104.

5. Whenever possible, COP should incorporate community input and participation so that it is the community's problems that are addressed, rather than just those of the police departments. Additionally, the community should share responsibility for its own protection.⁴⁰

The third "P" in Chief Bratton's definition of COP is prevention. COP strategy is more proactive and preventative than reactionary. Several components of COP are prevention-based by virtue of encouraging community interaction with officers between responding to calls for service; encouraging officers to discover underlying problems and conditions instead of simply focusing on the individual incident; devoting more personnel to crime prevention as opposed to apprehension and detection of crimes; devoting officers to mentoring roles so that juveniles do not get involved in crime in the first place.⁴¹

A compelling example of the consequences of NOT incorporating COP in any public program is the Terrorism Liaison Officer Program, which began in March of 2005 and is not regarded as a successful program. Why? The TLO program meets only two of the five COP features. The fire department has not actively sought input from the community in its effort to gather and share information related to terrorist activity. The initial training for the TLO program was offered to chief officers, fire, and emergency medical services captains, but to no line personnel. Lastly, department leadership has not identified the TLO program as standard operating procedure so the program has been viewed more as a special project.

There are several components of the COP model that can be effectively incorporated into a terrorism prevention model for the LAFD. The functional aspects of COP are that it is prevention-based, oriented to problem-solving, designed to foster collaboration between the community and first responders, supported by agency leaders and politicians, backed with financial support, indicative of the "concerted national

⁴⁰ Gary W. Corder, "Community Policing: Elements and Effects" in *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Reading*, Roger G. Dunham and Geoffrey P. Alpert eds. (Grove, IL: Waveland Press, Inc., 2005), 411.

⁴¹ Gary W. Corder, "Community Policing: Elements and Effects" in *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Reading* (Waveland Press, Inc., Grove IL, 2005) Roger G. Dunham and Geoffrey P. Alpert eds., p. 408.

effort”(partnerships) mandated in the *National Strategy*, and creative and imaginative community-based programs. All of the above functions have been the focus of such national recommendations as the *9/11 Commission Report*, *National Strategy for Homeland Security*, and “America Burning.” The terrorism prevention training curriculum and model in Appendix A is predicated on the integration of all of these elements.

B. DRUG ABUSE RESISTANCE EDUCATION

The Drug Abuse Resistance Education Program (D.A.R.E.) was initiated in 1983 in the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) by then-Police Chief Daryl Gates. Chief Gates recognized that police officers were ill-prepared to stop the supply and abuse of illegal drugs sweeping across America. The purpose, intention, and mission of D.A.R.E. were to educate students in Los Angeles schools about the dangers and consequences of drug use in order to prevent substance abuse among school age children.⁴²

With prevention as its foundation, the program set out to target children before they were affected by peer pressure toward experimentation with tobacco, drugs, and alcohol. Moreover, the children interacted with police officers in a non-threatening and educational setting, thus improving the image of law enforcement officers in the community and building positive relationships.

The D.A.R.E. program started at the beginning of the 1983-84 school term after Chief Gates received full cooperation from LAUSD. Ten LAPD officers taught the new curriculum to more than 8,000 students in 50 Los Angeles elementary schools during that first year. Two years later the program had grown and successfully reached all 345 elementary schools, in addition to the 58 junior high schools in the city.

Today, the U.S. Department of Justice reports that D.A.R.E. is a “validated, copyrighted, comprehensive drug and violence prevention education program for children

⁴² Enid Police Department, “Just Say No to Drugs.” Available from <http://www.enid.org/police/dare.htm>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

in kindergarten through 12th grade.”⁴³ The project is coordinated by D.A.R.E. America and receives input from state and local agencies. To date, the D.A.R.E. curriculum has been taught to more than 25 million elementary school students by over 22,000 community oriented police officers in over 7,000 communities throughout the country. Additionally, D.A.R.E. is taught by law enforcement officers in nineteen countries and is being implemented in Department of Defense Dependent schools worldwide.⁴⁴

The objectives of D.A.R.E. are met by training carefully selected officers to teach a structured, sequential curriculum in schools.⁴⁵ There are twelve critical program elements that have contributed to the success of the D.A.R.E. program, including joint planning, written agreement, officer selection, curriculum, classroom instruction, officer appraisal, informal officer-student interaction, teacher orientation, in-service training, parent education, and community presentations.

Funding for the D.A.R.E. program comes from various providers. A \$478,000 grant for five years was awarded to the State of California through the Office of Criminal Justice Planning.⁴⁶ According to the Bureau of Justice Assistance, the U.S. Department of Justice provides federal discretionary funding to five D.A.R.E. Regional Training Centers for accreditation of state training facilities, training, and support of technical assistance.⁴⁷

There is every reason to believe that sufficient federal funding is available for training and education for first responders to increase awareness of terrorist planning activities.

⁴³ U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance Fact Sheet, “Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.),” Available from <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/darefs.pdf>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

⁴⁴ Ibid., 1.

⁴⁵ U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance Fact Sheet, “Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.),” available from <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/darefs.pdf>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

⁴⁶ St. Clair County Sheriff’s Department, “History of the D.A.R.E. Program,” available from <http://www.sheriff.co.st-clair.il.us/darehist.asp>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

⁴⁷ U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance Fact Sheet, “Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.),” available from <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/darefs.pdf>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

Furthermore, D.A.R.E. serves as a good framework for the fire service to build on because it highlights an innovative grass-roots program that succeeded and flourished into a nationally-recognized protocol. The leadership demonstrated by Chief Gates, in this case, greatly contributed to the success of the program; the mission and goals were clearly stated and known throughout the organization, which provided officers with the direction they needed to succeed. Finally, funding was secured for training and sustainability.

C. COMMUNITY EMERGENCY RESPONSE TEAMS IN LOS ANGELES

Another successful prevention model is that of Community Emergency Response Teams (CERT). The LAFD sent personnel to Japan in February of 1985 to study its extensive earthquake preparedness plans. During the trip, the firefighters were surprised to learn that extensive steps had been taken to train entire communities in specific recovery operations – fire suppression, first aid, evacuation, and light search and rescue operations. The premise of the teams’ creation was that they would alleviate the potential devastation following a major earthquake.⁴⁸

Based on the lessons learned from Japan, the LAFD developed a pilot program to train a neighborhood watch group in 1986. The emphasis of the training was on basic fire suppression, light search and rescue operations, and basic first aid. Various demonstrations and field training exercises with the 30-person team proved the concept was an effective one. The tremendous need for this type of community training was underscored on October 1, 1987 when the Whittier Narrows earthquake hit Southern California.⁴⁹ Shortly after the earthquake the LAFD rushed to action by creating the Disaster Preparedness Division. The objectives of the division led by Chief Frank Borden were to educate and train the public and government sectors in disaster

⁴⁸ Frank Borden and Robert G. Lee, “The Emergency Response Team Model: A Common Sense Approach,” Disaster-Resource.com, available from http://www.disaster-resource.com/articles/emerg-response_model_borden.shtml. Accessed 21 July 2005.

⁴⁹ Borden and Lee, “The Emergency Response Team Model,” 2.

preparedness; research, evaluate, and disseminate disaster preparedness information; and develop, train, and maintain a network of Community Emergency Response Teams (CERTs).⁵⁰

Today CERT is taught by LAFD firefighters and paramedics to community groups, businesses and industry, and city government. The volunteers are educated in disaster preparedness, fire safety, disaster medical operations (including triage and the treatment of life-threatening injuries), light search and rescue, team organization, disaster psychology, and terrorism. The course is concluded by a day-long field training exercise where the volunteers must demonstrate skills. The primary objective is to teach citizens self-sufficiency in order to optimize chances of survival until professional responders arrive on the scene. Some of the benefits of the CERT program are increased community spirit, improved emergency skills for citizens during day-to-day emergencies, an enhanced bond between government and populace, and an increased overall level of public disaster readiness in Los Angeles.⁵¹

Following the successes between the citizens of Los Angeles and its firefighters, FEMA decided in 1993 to make the concept and program available to communities nationwide. The Emergency Management Institute, in cooperation with the LAFD, expanded the CERT materials to make them applicable to all hazards. In January of 2002, CERT became part of President Bush's Citizen Corps, which is a unifying structure to link a variety of related volunteer activities to expand a community's resources for crime prevention, counterterrorism efforts and emergency response.⁵² Additionally, Congress provides funds through Citizen Corps to states and territories, and grants from the funds may be available to local communities to start CERT programs.⁵³

⁵⁰ Borden and Lee, "The Emergency Response Team Model," 2.

⁵¹ Ibid., 2.

⁵² Oconee County, "Community Emergency Response Team," available from <http://www.oconeesc.com/emprep/cert.htm>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

⁵³ Emergency Management Institute, "CERT Frequently Asked Questions," available from <http://www.training.fema.gov/EMIWeb/CERT/certfaq.asp>. Accessed 21 July 2005.

After the terrorist attacks on 9/11, FEMA recognized the need to expand the CERT program curriculum to include indicators of terrorism. The final module of its curriculum is devoted to terrorism and discusses:

- The definition of terrorism and terrorist goals,
- The weapons terrorists are known or suspected to possess, and the risk posed by those weapons,
- Cues to identify when a terrorist attack has occurred or may be imminent, and
- CERT protocols for terrorist incidents and protective action following an event.⁵⁴

As respectable as FEMA's curriculum is, not nearly enough citizens participate in the CERT program. Greater emphasis and participation in the CERT program in conjunction with first responder awareness training could greatly increase opportunities for threat recognition and interdiction of terrorist incidents. Furthermore, an expanded curriculum for citizens could include such information as the definition of terrorism, what the terrorist threats are, how to identify that threat, and how to access a reporting mechanism if they did in fact recognize suspicious planning operations.

D. THE WASHINGTON STATEWIDE HOMELAND SECURITY PLAN

The State of Washington has been widely acknowledged in the homeland security field for its planning efforts. The Washington Statewide Homeland Security Plan was developed by the Washington Military Department, Emergency Management Division with input from state and local stakeholders. The plan is both comprehensive and proactive, but the objectives and strategies are of particular interest to this work because they are prevention-based. The components of this plan most relevant to this thesis are threat reduction "anti-terrorism" activities highlighted in the following sections that mandate: assisting and educating the private sector; improving threat recognition to halt the development of a terrorist threat before it is executed; and establishing a public and private community based pre-incident "threat indicator" training program.⁵⁵ These

⁵⁴ Human Technology, Inc., "Community Emergency Response Team: Participant Manual Unit 8," June 2003.

⁵⁵ Sauter and Carafano, *Homeland Security*, 278.

actions are exceptional because they focus on threat recognition and interdiction, which ODP describes as vital components of preparedness. Most emergency response agencies focus their attention on response and recovery following an incident rather than on preventing it from occurring in the first place.

Washington's Homeland Security Plan has been cited as a smart practice because it is thorough and balanced. The designers of this plan accessed their state homeland security structure for guidance on all aspects of preparedness before creating it. As a result they did not focus more efforts on response and mitigation capabilities, but balanced their capabilities throughout.

LAFD could use Washington's plan as a model as it explores opportunities to educate the public regarding terrorism. The private sector is a large resource pool that should be included in terrorism awareness, in addition to residents and responders.

E. THE NEW JERSEY OFFICE OF COUNTERTERRORISM

The State of New Jersey has been a leader in counterterrorism through its New Jersey Office of Counterterrorism (OCT), a program initiated by executive order in January 2002 to "administer, coordinate, and lead the New Jersey counterterrorism and preparedness efforts with the goals of identifying, deterring, and detecting terrorist-related activities."⁵⁶ The OCT is broken down into four divisions including intelligence, investigations, critical infrastructure, and training, which is very similar to the LAFD SOD. Both models incorporate initiatives recommended in the *National Strategy*, but OCT's training division has instructed thousands of state, county, and local homeland security professionals in counterterrorism. The training curriculum emphasizes study in terrorist group tendencies, patterns, preferences, and conventions. OCT has been successful because it fosters collaboration, information and intelligence sharing, risk management and assessment of CIP, and awareness training for first responders.⁵⁷ The programs within the OCT deal more with pre-incident indicators and actions, where

⁵⁶ Sidney J. Caspersen, "Introduction to Chapter 4: Counterterrorism, Intelligence and Analysis," in *The McGraw-Hill Homeland Security Handbook* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2006), 362.

⁵⁷ Ibid..

LAFD has provided training that deals more with post-incident actions. Although the two models are very similar in organization and function, LAFD could benefit from OCT's training design which is balanced between state and regional terrorism awareness training and tabletop and field exercise scenarios.

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IV. FEDERAL GUIDANCE AND FRAMEWORKS

Ample federal guidance exists to provide the frameworks and goals necessary to the design and implementation of any terrorism-prevention program. The salient documents are the previously-mentioned *National Strategy* and “America Burning,” as well as The *Office of Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Homeland Security: Prevention and Deterrence*, and *The Cycles of Preparedness*.

A. THE NATIONAL STRATEGY

Following the attacks of 9/11, a considerable amount of research and strategic planning was conducted throughout the United States and at various levels of government. These efforts produced a large amount of innovative thinking and valuable counter-terrorism protocols. The most important of those documents are:

- National Strategy For Homeland Security [2002]
- National Money Laundering Strategy [2002]
- National Drug Control Strategy [2002]
- National Strategy to Combat Weapons of Mass Destruction [2002]
- National Strategy For Combating Terrorism [2003]
- National Strategy For The Physical Protection of Critical Infrastructures and Key Assets [2003]
- National Strategy To Secure Cyberspace [2003]
- National Military Strategy [2004]
- National Counterintelligence Strategy of the United States [2005]
- Strategy for Homeland Defense and Civil Support [2005]

These strategies vary somewhat in their stated missions and objectives, but they share a common goal of eliminating or controlling global terrorism. They universally underscore the need for a comprehensive set of guidelines by which federal, state, and local agencies can effectively join together to protect the security of the American population.

The most applicable and relevant strategy for the LAFD is the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. It asserts that non-military and non-law enforcement assets must now be applied to the detection, prevention and control of violent terrorist attacks carried out in non-traditional venues against civilian, non-combatant populations:

The United States has long relied on national strategies to focus federal efforts on dealing with national security issues from fighting World War II to the war on drugs. After 9/11, one of the first efforts of the Bush administration was to craft a family of strategies to guide the global war on terrorism. *The National Strategy for Homeland Security* was perhaps the most important of these documents, providing a framework for how the federal government would organize domestic security activities.⁵⁸

In a letter dated July 16, 2002, President George W. Bush ordered the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*, and said this:

The National Strategy for Homeland Security is a beginning. It calls for bold and necessary steps. It creates a comprehensive plan for using America's talents and resources to enhance our protection and reduce our vulnerability to terrorist attacks. We have produced a comprehensive national strategy that is based on the principles of cooperation and partnership. As a result of this Strategy, firefighters will be better equipped to fight fires, police officers better armed to fight crime, businesses better able to protect their data and information systems, and scientists better able to fight Mother Nature's deadliest diseases. We will not achieve these goals overnight...but we will achieve them.⁵⁹

In retrospect, the attacks of 9/11 awakened a new national awareness, perhaps reminiscent of the attack on Pearl Harbor some sixty years ago. As before, the entire nation has been put on alert and each citizen has been called upon to contribute to the defense effort. National guidelines have been drafted to inform the American public of our common interests in securing our homeland. Within these guidelines and executive orders, there is a clear and unambiguous call to duty for non-traditional soldiers to

⁵⁸ Sauter and Carafano, *Homeland Security*, 237.

⁵⁹ *National Strategy*, preface.

respond to the threat of terrorism: the modern American fire service has been called upon to design and implement new public safety programs calculated to counter the terrorist threats.

What this suggests is that firefighters and emergency medical personnel assigned to the LAFD are front-line soldiers in the war on terrorism. If the LAFD accepts its new role, then a conscious decision must be made to detect, deter and prevent the violent loss of life, including that of the members of the department itself. This challenge is most certainly a monumental departure from the traditional “fire house” mentality, and will force extraordinary change within the LAFD. Failure to respond to this challenge, though, portends a calamity that might overshadow the events of September 11, 2001.

Was the president sincere in his promise to fight terrorism by increasing the resources of local first responders? Yes: For example, the LAFD alone has received over \$40 million dollars from the federal government to better equip first responders. These funds were allocated in a regional manner consistent with the goals of the *National Strategy*. In very tangible ways, this funding has enhanced the safety of firefighters and increased their ability to deliver public safety services. Table 2 depicts just how LAFD programs align with initiatives as written in the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*.

Present Initiatives National Strategy	Current LAFD Organization	LAFD Compliance To Initiatives
Integrate separate federal response plans into a single all-discipline incident management plan	Tactical Training Section Homeland Security Planning Section	NIMS certification pending, LAFD compliance underway
Create a national incident management system	Tactical Training Section	Continued reliance on ICS, increased training and ICS development
Improve tactical counter-terrorist capabilities	Tactical Training Section Homeland Security Intelligence Section	Ongoing programs including TEW, Archangel and TLO
Enable seamless communications among all responders	Bureau of Support Services	Dedicated technical staff, updated communications equipment acquired (on line)
Prepare health care providers for catastrophic terrorism	Tactical Training Section Emergency Services Division	Increased tabletop and field exercises
Augment pharmaceutical and vaccine stockpiles	Bureau of Emergency Services	Increased field supplies, added mobile trailers
Prepare for chemical, biological, radiological and nuclear decontamination	Tactical Training Section In-Service Training Section	Increased trained DECON staff, in mobile DECON units, provided W to all officers
Plan for military support to civil authorities	Tactical Training Section	Increased tabletop and field exercises with armed services
Build the "Citizen Corps"	Disaster Preparedness Unit	Expand existing CERT programs
Implement the "First Responders Initiative of the Fiscal Year 2003 Budget"	Tactical Training Section	UASI funding and other Grants are being administered
Build the national training and evaluation system	Tactical Training Section	Regional and Tactical Training are working toward standardized training
Enhance the victim support system	Disaster Preparedness Unit	Increased ambulance and paramedic staffing, enhanced rapid deployment capabilities and equipment

Table 2. LAFD Comparison with National Strategy Emergency Preparedness and Response Initiatives (From: *National Strategy for Homeland Security*, 42-45.)

Again, these measures are largely based on response strategies for events already in progress.

If the purpose of the *National Strategy* is to organize and mobilize assets to secure our homeland from terrorist attacks, then public safety agencies like the LAFD need to re-evaluate their current practices. For example, the LAFD deploys firefighters and emergency medical personnel on hundreds of occasions throughout the city on a daily basis. These “routine” calls for service are actually opportunities to observe and detect circumstances and conditions that might indicate a pre-attack terrorist activity. If LAFD personnel were properly trained and capable of making important on-scene observations, there is a good probability that such observations, coupled with effective communications, might detect, deter, or prevent a violent terrorist attack. Such a practice would be simple, unobtrusive, and comparatively inexpensive.

According to the *National Strategy*’s framework, there are six homeland security missions relevant to the LAFD: Intelligence and Warning, Borders and Transportation, Domestic Counter-Terrorism, Critical Infrastructure Protection, Catastrophic Terrorism Defense, and Emergency Preparedness and Response. Many of these functions have been addressed by the LAFD as noted in Table 2.

The first three concentrate on pre-attack or preventative interventions. If these three missions were fully successful, the remaining three would logically have a diminished role in the overall strategy. The fourth and fifth missions clearly focus on existing vulnerabilities. The sixth mission addresses the classic post-attack response in terms of minimizing, managing, and recovering from a critical event. It should be noted that public safety agencies, including the LAFD, have a timeworn practice of dividing work assignments into regional or topical elements and then attempting to allocate sufficient resources to accomplish the entire objective. This approach seems inadequate within the new terrorism parameter. For example, it would be far more prudent and effective to allocate resources to prevent the event rather than simply to respond to that which has already occurred. If this strategic axiom were to be observed, then the allocation of resources could be more precisely and effectively managed.

The concept that prevention is more effective than response is not new. It is a widely accepted practice in the insurance industry, law enforcement, modern medicine, and even the fire service. LAFD personnel are already completing fire prevention inspections within their jurisdictions. The idea here is to alter the inspection procedures to include those indicators of terrorist planning. In addition to the typical observations of fire extinguishers, blocked exits and extension cords, the author suggests that firefighters be taught to recognize situations that are out of the ordinary: For example, stockpiles of chemicals would be out of place in a garment warehouse. Such awareness training falls perfectly under the Tactical Training Section's program criteria.

B. AMERICA BURNING

In 1971 the cost of destructive fire in the United States amounted to \$11.4 billion annually. Industry professionals were frustrated because the richest and most technologically advanced nation in the world led all industrialized countries in per capita deaths and property loss from fire.⁶⁰ In that same year, the injury rate for firefighters was recorded at 39.6%; 175 firefighters died in the line of duty, an additional 89 firefighters died of heart attacks, and 26 firefighters died of lung disease related to smoke inhalation from firefighting.⁶¹

Property loss	\$2,700,000,000
Fire department operations	\$2,500,000,000
Burn injury treatment	\$1,000,000,000
Operating cost of insurance industry	\$1,900,000,000
Productivity loss	\$3,300,000,000
TOTAL	\$11,400,000,000

Table 3. Estimated Annual U. S. Fire Costs in 1971 (From: "America Burning" 2.)

⁶⁰ "America Burning," 1-9.

⁶¹ Ibid., 2.

It was in response to these dire statistics that the National Commission on Fire Prevention and Control was funded by Congress in 1971. The main purpose of the Commission was to study the fire problem in America and to make recommendations “whereby the Nation can reduce the destruction of life and property caused by fire in cities, suburbs, communities, and elsewhere.”⁶² Legislation drafted within the report established the parameters for the commission’s areas of study: technological advances, construction techniques, and inspection procedures; the federal government’s involvement in decreasing the number of destructive fires; existing methods of fire suppression; fire department recruiting efforts; firefighter training programs; techniques for fire communications; assessment and standardization of firefighting equipment; fire department administrative structure; and means for federal, state, and local governments to reduce fire losses.

The Commission then set goals to decrease deaths, injuries, and property losses by 50% within a ten-year time span: it concluded that the goal could be attained if there were a 5% decline per year. Next, the Commission recommended a number of actions to be taken by government and industry that would cost little or nothing. It recognized, however, that the federal government would have to participate financially if those lofty goals were to be achieved. Moreover, educational programs would have to be created so the public would understand fire prevention and coping with fire incidents.

In the end, \$150 million was requested for a five-year trial. The accomplishments of the Commission were projected as follows: a total saving of 8,000 lives; a total reduction of injuries by 210,000, \$1.9 billion savings in property losses; and \$85 million savings in hospital and medical expenses.⁶³

In order to address these concerns the Commission made two recommendations: that Congress establish a United States Fire Administration to provide national focus for the Nation’s fire problem and to promote a comprehensive program with adequate

⁶² “America Burning,” 1-9.

⁶³ Ibid., 8.

funding to reduce life and property loss from fire; and that a national fire data system be established to provide a continuing review and analysis of the entire fire problem.⁶⁴

C. OFFICE OF DOMESTIC PREPAREDNESS GUIDELINES FOR HOMELAND SECURITY: PREVENTION AND DETERRENCE

No framework does more to emphasize the value of awareness regarding the enemy than *The Office of Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Homeland Security: Prevention and Deterrence*. Just one year following the September 11th attacks ODP began an in-depth “task analysis.”⁶⁵ The foundation of this process stemmed from the weight placed on prevention as outlined in the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*: “deter all potential terrorists from attacking America through our uncompromising commitment to defeating terrorism wherever it appears; detect terrorists before they strike; prevent them and their instruments of terror from entering our country; and take decisive action to eliminate the threat they pose... Prevention, if it is to be effective, begins before a response is necessary.”⁶⁶

ODP was successful in designing a framework for prevention based on its extensive task analysis. A final set of guidelines constitutes the general activities, objectives, and elements that organizations and those in command positions within the organizations should consider in the development of prevention plans. The guidelines are divided into the functional categories of Collaboration, Information Sharing, Threat Recognition, Risk Management, and Intervention. The following are recommendations taken from the guidelines that are of particular relevance to this work.

Jurisdictions seeking to improve collaboration between and among public and private sector agencies to prevent WMD terrorism should: recognize that there is a need for prevention activities and actions and that prevention is critical to a jurisdiction’s preparation for terrorism; use community-policing initiatives, strategies, and tactics as a basis to identify suspicious activities related to terrorism; coordinate federal, state, and

⁶⁴ “America Burning,” 2.

⁶⁵ *National Strategy*, 2.

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*

local information, plans and actions for assessments, prevention procedures, infrastructure protection, and funding priorities to address prevention; and exercise prevention and collaboration measures.

Jurisdictions seeking to improve “Threat Recognition” to halt the development of a WMD terrorism threat before it is executed should train law enforcement personnel and others (e.g., fire, EMS, PW, HC, social services, etc.), using standard definitions, criteria, and terms to recognize as clearly as possible the behavioral, observable, and legal criteria to recognize what constitutes suspicious terrorist activities. Finally, jurisdictions seeking to improve “Intervention” to stop terrorists before they can execute a threat should train personnel to recognize threats and threatening cues and to respond appropriately to suspects preparing for attacks.⁶⁷

The purpose of identifying these particular guidelines is that they represent the gaps in preparedness the LAFD has neglected in its counter-terrorism activities. Collaborative relationships and information sharing protocols have been appropriately cultivated, but threat recognition protocols, intervention procedures, and risk management functions have been deficient. These deficiencies will all be addressed in first responder and citizen awareness training programs.

D. THE CYCLES OF PREPAREDNESS

Dr. William Pelfrey of ODP goes further to shape these five functional categories into a more detailed framework – one that is conceptualized as a cycle. In “The Cycles of Preparedness: Establishing a Framework to Prepare for Terrorist Threats,” Pelfrey explains that a cycle is useful “as a proxy for a dynamic, flexible, and continuous process of interaction and integration, and functioning as a self-organizing mechanism that improves preparedness for anticipated events and for the unimagined events.”⁶⁸

⁶⁷ Office for Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Homeland Security, 6-23.

⁶⁸ William V. Pelfrey, “The Cycle of Preparedness: Establishing a Framework to Prepare for Terrorist Threats,” *Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management* (2005), 3.

Furthermore, he argues that preparedness is not a “vision that has been clearly articulated or swiftly adopted” due to the lack of direction written within the plethora of strategies and directives.⁶⁹

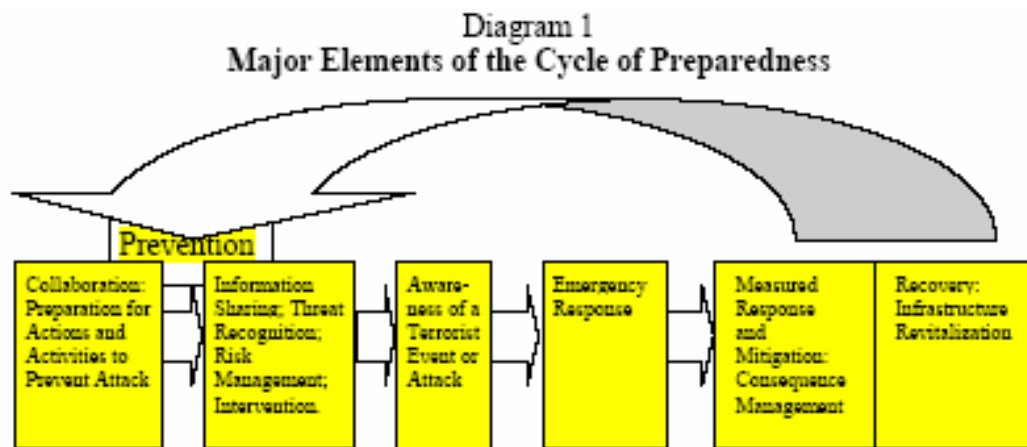


Figure 1. From: *Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management*, “The Cycles of Preparedness: Establishing a Framework to Prepare for Terrorist Threats,” 3.

This diagram is informative because it signifies early actions in collaboration, information sharing, threat recognition, risk management, and intervention will eliminate the need for emergency response. The most prevalent gaps in LAFD’s efforts again appear to be in threat recognition, risk management, and intervention.

⁶⁹ William V. Pelfrey, “The Cycle of Preparedness: Establishing a Framework to Prepare for Terrorist Threats,” *Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management* (2005), 2.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The *National Strategy* clearly identifies the strategic objectives of homeland security in priority order. First, terrorist attacks must be prevented in the United States. Second, we all must work to reduce America's vulnerability to terrorism. Finally, we must minimize the damage and be able to recover from terrorist attacks that do occur.⁷⁰ The LAFD has devoted significant attention to reducing vulnerabilities within the city and to minimizing damage by improving security of its critical infrastructure. Great progress has been made in recovery efforts with the purchase of mobile command vehicles, urban search and rescue trucks, and hazardous materials squads and equipment.

Because so much effort has been devoted to the second and third strategic objectives, preventative measures have been overlooked. In order to strengthen the overall preparedness of the LAFD's anti-terrorism efforts, more proactive programs will be necessary. Based on this fact, the final recommendations of this thesis are to 1) rewrite and distribute a new department vision that incorporates solutions to the challenge of terrorism; and 2) develop and implement both a terrorism awareness training program and prevention-based training programs for both first responders and citizens. These recommendations should be developed and implemented by the Special Operations Division through the Tactical Training Section within the Special Projects Unit.

A. DEPARTMENT VISION

Increased demands upon the fire service require more focused and coordinated strategic planning. At one time the fire service was responsible only for fire suppression activities. Now, emergency medical services are the bulk of the call load handled by first responders. Several other specialized skills have received even greater attention since the events of 9/11, such as hazardous materials identification and confined space and urban search and rescue operations. A clearly defined vision of the new direction in which the LAFD is headed will assist to organize and mobilize the workforce toward one common goal. At present the LAFD is guided by a mission statement that was written before the

⁷⁰ *National Strategy*, vii.

attacks on September 11th. Much has changed in the world since the twentieth century and updated goals and objectives will more effectively guide the organization now and well into the future.

B. TERRORISM AWARENESS TRAINING PROGRAM

The LAFD has accepted that they have a role to play in the global war on terror. Weapons of mass destruction training and radiological monitoring equipment are not enough to arm them for the twenty-first century threat of terrorism. The department has over 3,500 personnel, including firefighters, paramedics and emergency medical technicians who respond to more than 1,100 emergency calls each day. Nearly 200 fire inspectors conduct approximately 1,600 fire inspections daily. This work force needs a solid understanding of terrorist planning activities in order to predict, deter or interrupt a man-made attack.

Educating first responders, citizens and public works employees will prove immensely helpful to enhancing security in the homeland. Increasing the overall awareness of terrorist operations; organizations and motivations; resources required for terrorists to carry out their attacks; and techniques used by terrorists will improve the opportunity to interdict an attack before it can be initiated. A basic curriculum has been included in the Appendix of this paper that addresses the origins and definitions of both domestic and international terrorism. Terrorist attacks that occurred in the United States between 1992 and 2001 are discussed along with attacks that took place in Los Angeles, including strikes against a Jewish community center, an Internal Revenue Services building, and a ticket counter at the Los Angeles International Airport.

Why do terrorists strike? A common misconception is that terrorists attack because they are poorly educated and perhaps even crazy. Research in this project uncovered true motivations which are largely religious, political, or economic. A profile of those who carry out the attacks is equally important for responders to know. The curriculum identifies the various adversary groups: ideological, domestic, left-wing, right-wing, special interest, international, Islamic Extremists and state sponsors of terrorism. It also discusses their tactics: bombing, assassination, hijacking, kidnapping

and hostage taking, ambushes, sabotage, antiaircraft missiles, arson, maritime, industrial/infrastructure attack, and the rapidly growing tactic of suicide terrorism.

Los Angeles is the fourth largest city in the country and has a wide array of vulnerabilities and potential targets from which criminals may choose. Responders should be aware of commonly targeted locations so that suspicious activities occurring around those sites may be recognized. The awareness curriculum lists several terrorist targets: federal, state, and local government buildings; mass transit facilities; public buildings and assembly areas; controversial businesses; communication and utility facilities; water supply facilities; research facilities and other locations where large groups of people congregate.

Emergency responders need an understanding of strategies used by terrorists so that effective counter-measures may be developed. Nine strategic goals are listed in the Appendix, including intimidation, destruction, acquisition, extortion or demand, influence, overreaction, revenge and reciprocity, satisfaction and survival. Dialogue about situational awareness concludes the course.

C. MORE PREVENTION-BASED PROGRAMS

People on the front lines need policies and procedures to guide them and keep them safe in this challenging September 12th era. The LAFD would benefit in the short-term to incorporate the Prevention and Response to Suicide Bombings Incidents Course prepared by the New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology and sponsored by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security. Among other things, this course teaches emergency responders how to recognize the nine phases of suicide bombing attack; legal and personal protection issues; and information collection and management/indicators and warnings.

Annual Division Evaluation Training conducted by the LAFD focuses on the manipulation of frequently used firefighting tools and equipment such as hose, ladders, saws and personal protective equipment. Federal grant funding has allowed the purchase of many new technologies and equipment for use when responding to incidents of terrorism. However, not much training has accompanied these tools and technologies.

Division Evaluation is an ideal forum for practice and evaluation of this new equipment. Traditional stations focusing on laddering, saw manipulation and hose lays can be replaced with radiological monitoring equipment, patient transportation devices and auto-injector use.

The *National Strategy for Homeland Security* and the *Office of Domestic Preparedness Guidelines for Prevention and Deterrence* clearly assert the need for fire service personnel to become actively engaged in terrorism prevention. To date, the LAFD has made significant progress toward improving response to incidents of terrorism. This has been accomplished through the implementation of the Special Operations Division and the sections within it, such as Homeland Security Intelligence, Homeland Security Planning and Tactical Training. The work done thus far has improved response capabilities mainly through increased participation in multi-agency/multi-disciplinary tabletop and field exercising; increased information and intelligence sharing with internal personnel and external law enforcement, public health, political representatives, security and private sector stakeholders; and by supplemental federal funding for the acquisition of equipment and technology.

The efforts listed above represent some of the programs that have already been completed by the LAFD, and these efforts have been successful as far as they go. However, further terrorism prevention-related programs will be difficult to establish because of cultural impediments, which will not be overcome unless all the criteria of COP are implemented: community participation; a known and shared vision throughout the rank and file; administrative, line-level and political support; sufficient long-term funding; comprehensive training and education; focused in prevention and problem-solving oriented.

In addition to this, LAFD administrators will be required to accept that the single best method of defeating terrorism is by educating its personnel (as well as the public) about how to recognize the roles and motivations of individual terrorists, their cell systems, fundraising, and the street-level mechanics of terrorist operations. Department leadership must resist complacency by simply accepting that responding is the only option. Accepting two fundamental leadership practices, inspiring a shared vision and

enabling others to act will support a common homeland security vision. This means gaining a line-level commitment and participation of firefighters, paramedics and inspectors, along with adequate funding and staffing, will pave the way for preventing terrorist attacks from occurring in Los Angeles and in neighboring jurisdictions.

Based on what the LAFD already has established in the terrorism arena, it appears that what it lacks is an awareness training program for line-level personnel. The most appropriate setting for that would be in the SOD. In addition to the curriculum content as described previously in this thesis and later in the Appendix, this program would do well to take advantage of the successes in prevention programs and terrorism-related programs elsewhere, including DARE, CERT, Washington and New Jersey. A successful program would need to accord with the frameworks and guidance as set by DHS in the *National Strategy* and by ODP in its guidelines.

Specifically, this means the curriculum must clearly define terrorism to LAFD personnel, and then discuss terrorist ideologies, motivations, targets, tactics and strategies. In the *Art of War* the military strategist Sun Tzu underscores the importance of one thing in particular: “One who knows the enemy and knows himself will not be endangered in a hundred engagements. One who does not know the enemy but knows himself will sometimes be victorious, sometimes meet with defeat. One who knows neither the enemy nor himself will invariably be defeated in every engagement.”⁷¹ Simply put, terrorists are strategic actors – their operations are observable, their preparations can be detected, and attacks can be stopped before they begin if emergency responders are taught how to recognize indicators of terrorist planning operations.

⁷¹ Sun Tzu, *Art of War*, Trans. Ralph D. Sawyer (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc., 1995), 135.

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APPENDIX

I. INTRODUCTION

Just as fire behavior is observable, terrorist planning actions and behaviors are observable as well. Firefighters train to recognize certain conditions that warn of backdraft, flashover, or rollover; we do so to ensure our safety and the safety of others in the most dangerous of environments. The twenty-first century fire service professional is challenged by an entirely new danger – that of terrorist attack. We can reduce the danger of terrorism through education and training, as we have in hazardous materials identification, ventilation operations, and structure firefighting.

In *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, Malcolm Nance claims “The single best method of defeating terrorism is educating our first responders, law enforcement personnel, military, and security professionals (as well as the public) about how to recognize the roles and motivations of individual terrorists, their cell systems, and the street-level mechanics of terrorist operations.” This Appendix identifies the specific curriculum components necessary for educating first responders with a basic foundation on terrorism and terrorism awareness. It suggests delivery mechanisms for the curriculum that are designed to be flexible to particular departmental and jurisdictional needs. A reading list draws together some of the most important texts on terrorism – on which the curriculum is built – and serves as a reference for professionals who desire to do further research. A partial sample of the curriculum demonstrates the kinds of information any curriculum should contain. Finally, a list of existing training programs and websites is

provided for departments that do not have the resources to create their own terrorism awareness program.

II. IMPLEMENTATION

There are many different avenues through which to provide training and education to a workforce. Many factors will have a role in what option is best for a certain department, such as budget, time, available expertise, training location, and materials. The recommendation for the Los Angeles Fire Department (LAFD) is that terrorism awareness training be designed and implemented by the Special Operations Division (SOD), the organization within the LAFD that addresses counterterrorism operations and has a Special Projects Unit that can handle this task. Some fire departments may not have a separate counterterrorism division to accomplish this project, but most modern fire departments have training divisions, fire/EMS academies, and other venues and platforms for distributing training materials to its personnel.

The LAFD uses several mechanisms for providing training and education to its members: Training Bulletins, Training Alerts, and Department Bulletins are the primary written forms of communication; a newer forum is the compact disc or digital video series that each station has in its station library accompanied with a written lesson plan for station-based training. Simulation training is becoming more and more popular in the fire service and is an excellent forum for awareness training. A department-wide seminar is a fairly inexpensive means of providing training to members on their day off so they can attend at their own discretion and at no salary cost to the department. Internet-based training is another avenue to provide awareness training to first responders. Finally,

annual training sessions are perfect for incorporating terrorism-related scenarios, tool and equipment evaluations, and updates on current threats and trends. This curriculum lends itself easily to any one these delivery vehicles and forms.

III. TABLE OF CONTENTS

Whether the LAFD or any other fire department uses the exact curriculum information provided in Section IV below, every terrorism and terrorism awareness training program should contain at a minimum these modules:

- A. Defining Terrorism
 - 1. Background
 - 2. Terrorist Incidents
- B. Terrorist Threats
 - 1. Groups
 - 2. Motivations
 - 3. Tactics
- C. Terrorist Strategies
 - 1. Objectives
- D. Terrorist Tactics
 - 1. Bombing
 - 2. Kidnapping/Hostage Taking
 - 3. Hijacking
 - 4. Assassination
 - 5. Ambushes
 - 6. Sabotage
 - 7. Antiaircraft
 - 8. Arson
 - 9. Maritime
 - 10. Industrial/Infrastructure
 - 11. WMD
 - 12. Suicide Terrorism
- E. Terrorist Targets
 - 1. Selection
 - 2. Categories
 - 3. Indicators and Reportable Items
 - 4. Managing the Risks

F. Situational Awareness

IV. SUGGESTED CURRICULUM

A. DEFINING TERRORISM

First responders do much more than just fight fires; their training encompasses countless hours training in structure firefighting techniques, emergency medical services treatment, hazardous materials response, confined space rescue and more. Many hours are spent learning how to identify the various building construction components encountered by firefighters. Fire prevention inspections are conducted regularly so that first responders may become familiar with occupancies within their jurisdictions that store dangerous chemicals. One of the greatest threats firefighters now face is also one to which little time has been devoted: identifying and preventing terrorism.

This section will briefly discuss some of the more publicized and recent terrorist incidents, provide various government definitions of terrorism, and discuss the characteristics of terrorism.

Background

According to Bruce Hoffman, the word “terrorism” was first popularized during the French Revolution.⁷² More recently than the 1700s, however, Americans have been affected by terrorist incidents in this country and abroad. From small bombings in Europe, South America, and Asia to the attack against U.S. Marines in Beirut and the

⁷² Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 15.

downing of Pan Am Flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland, U.S. citizens, businesses and government facilities, including embassies and military facilities, have been targets of terrorism.⁷³

February 28, 1993 marks the first attack by international terrorists on U.S. soil. A group of foreign terrorists detonated a bomb in the parking garage of the World Trade Center in New York City, killing six people and injuring more than 1,000. Since then, there have been several more attacks on U.S. soil. Among the most egregious:

- Animal Liberation Front (ALF) arson attack, Michigan (1992)
- Attempted bombing of the IRS facility in Nevada (1995)
- Ricin possession, Virginia (1995)
- Oklahoma City Bombing of the Murrah Federal Office Building (1995)
- Amtrak derailment, Arizona (1995)
- Bomb attack on FBI Field Office, Texas (1996)
- Numerous bomb attacks in Atlanta (1996-97)
- Attacks on World Trade Center and Washington (2001)⁷⁴

Terrorist activity is not uncommon in the city of Los Angeles; four noteworthy cases have occurred since 1988, and are significant because LAFD personnel responded to all incidents, with the exception of the thwarted plot at the U.S.-Canadian border:

On or about September 19, 1988, in Los Angeles, California, within the Central District of California, defendant DEAN HARVEY HICKS, maliciously and intentionally damaged and attempted to damage or destroy, by means of fire and

⁷³ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-3.

⁷⁴ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-4.

an explosive device, a building possessed, used by, and leased in part, to the United States of America, specifically offices of the Internal Revenue Service, at 11500 West Olympic Blvd., Los Angeles, California. On such date, defendant Hicks attempted to damage and destroy the commercial building located at the address by triggering a car bomb...wired to explode with high explosives. On or about February 22, 1990, in Los Angeles, California, within the Central District of California, defendant DEAN HARVEY HICKS, maliciously and intentionally damaged and attempted to damage or destroy, by means of fire and an explosive devices, a building possessed, used by, and leased in part, to the United States of America, specifically offices of the Internal Revenue Service, at 11500 West Olympic Blvd. Los Angeles, California. On such date, defendant Hicks attempted to damage and destroy the commercial building located at that address by triggering a truck bomb, parked across the street from the commercial building located at 11500 West Olympic Blvd., which was loaded with approximately 2,000 pounds of high explosives, Ammonium Nitrate Fuel Oil.⁷⁵

The citation above represents the two criminal complaints charged against the defendant Mr. Hicks. The first incident, described as a car bomb, was located in the parking garage of the IRS building. The car was filled with Ammonium Nitrate pipe bombs, gasoline containers, and Clorox bottles filled with ammonia and bleach. LAPD bomb squad technicians also determined that the car was booby-trapped. A fire broke out in the car following detonation, to which LAFD fire companies responded and extinguished the fire.⁷⁶

The February 1990 incident was a truck bomb filled with mortar launchers and approximately 2,000 pounds of Ammonium Nitrate in 55-gallon containers. This vehicle was parked outside the IRS building in order to project the mortar launchers up and into the building. After several mortars were fired, the truck caught fire and LAFD fire companies again responded and extinguished it before the containers of Ammonium

⁷⁵ *U.S. District Court v. Dean Harvey Hicks*, (Criminal Complain, US District Court Central District of California, 1991), <http://www.tkb.org/CaseHome.jsp?caseid=368> [Accessed November 8, 2005] 2.

⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, 5.

Nitrate could explode. No injuries resulted from either incident, but LAPD bomb experts predicted that had the truck bomb exploded it would have destroyed two city blocks.⁷⁷

On August 10, 1999, Buford Furrow walked into the North Valley Jewish Community Center in Granada Hills, California and opened fire with an automatic rifle. Four young children and a woman were injured by the known white supremacist. Furrow fled the scene on foot only to fatally shoot a Filipino-American postal worker. Furrow later turned himself in to the FBI in Las Vegas, Nevada and said he wanted his act to be “a wake-up call to America to kill Jews.”⁷⁸ In his confession to the FBI, Furrow referred to the U.S. Postal Service worker as a “good target of opportunity” because he was non-white.⁷⁹

In late December of 2000, Ahmed Ressam of Algeria attempted to cross the Canadian border into the United States at Port Angeles, Washington. An astute border agent noticed Ressam was visibly nervous and after questioning him ordered a search of his car. The trunk was filled with 40 kilograms of explosives and detonators which Ressam later confessed were to be used for a terrorist operation at Los Angeles International Airport (LAX). In his confession, Ressam said he chose LAX “because an airport is sensitive politically and economically” and because the United States was “the biggest enemy” of Islam.⁸⁰

⁷⁷ Ibid., 8.

⁷⁸ EmergencyNet News Service, “Shooting at Jewish Community Center in Los Angeles,” (August 10, 1999), <http://www.emergency.com>, [Accessed November 8, 2005], 4.

⁷⁹ MIPT Terrorism Knowledge Base, “U.S.A. v. Buford Furrow: 99-CR-838,” <http://www.tkb.org/CaseHome.jsp?caseid=421> [Accessed November 8, 2005], 1.

⁸⁰ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 29.

Finally, on July 4, 2002, Heshem Mohamed Ali-Hadayet walked up to the El Al Airlines ticket counter in LAX and began to fire. A struggle between Hadayet and two El Al security guards ensued before two people were killed and four others injured; Hadayet was shot and killed in the incident as well.⁸¹ Upon further investigation, the FBI determined the attack to be a terrorist act.

These local and national incidents have claimed the lives of nearly 3,500 Americans, causing federal, state, and local governments to initiate programs to prepare responders for and prevent incidents of terrorism. Over \$30 million has been spent by the LAFD toward the purchase of specialized equipment, weapons of mass destruction training, and intelligence collection capabilities alone. At least one area remains in order to achieve this goal: the training of those who are (and will continue to be) the first to prevent or respond to acts of terrorism in recognizing its signs and understanding what they face in the post-9/11 world.

What Is Terrorism?

One thing terrorism experts agree on is that there is no single, universally-accepted definition of terrorism. In *Terrorism: A Very Short Introduction*, Charles Townshend says, “terrorism appears to be a state of mind rather than an activity.”⁸² Hoffman cites in his work that, “while the tactics and targets of terrorists and lone assassins are often identical, their purpose is not.”⁸³ Understanding that every agency and

⁸¹ Violence Policy Center, “Fact Sheet on the Los Angeles International Airport Shooting and Statistics on Firearms Violence in California,” (July 4, 2002), <http://www.vpc.org>, [Accessed November 9, 2005] 1.

⁸² Charles Townshend, *Terrorism: A Very Short Introduction* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002), 3.

⁸³ Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 41.

organization uses its own operational definition of terrorism, these are the more common definitions:

- The unlawful use of force or violence against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population, or any segment thereof, in furtherance of political or social objectives: Federal Bureau of Investigation.⁸⁴
- The calculated use or threat of violence to inculcate fear, intended to coerce or intimidate governments or societies: United States government.⁸⁵
- Premeditated, politically-motivated violence perpetrated against noncombatant targets by sub-national groups or clandestine agents usually intended to influence an audience: USC Title 22 Section 2656f(d).⁸⁶
- The unlawful use of – or threatened use of – force or violence against individuals or property to coerce or intimidate governments or societies, often to achieve political, religious, or ideological objectives: US Department of Defense.⁸⁷

There are many more definitions of terrorism than these; what is more important for a first responder to know are the common components, or characteristics of terrorism, which according to Hoffman include: ineluctably political aims and motives; violence – or, equally important, threats of violence; designed to have far-reaching psychological repercussions beyond the immediate victim or target; conducted by an organization with an identifiable chain of command or conspiratorial cell structure (whose members wear no uniform or identifying insignia); and perpetrated by a sub-national group or non-state entity.⁸⁸

⁸⁴ Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 38.

⁸⁵ Charles Townshend, *Terrorism: A Very Short Introduction* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002)3.

⁸⁶ Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 38.

⁸⁷ Ibid., 38.

⁸⁸ Ibid., 43.

Similarly, Sauter and Carafano have synthesized the various definitions of terrorism and narrowed them to these central elements: terrorism is conducted by sub-national groups; is targeted at random noncombatant victims; directed at one set of victims in part to create fear among a larger audience; is aimed at coercing governments or populations; planned to get publicity; motivated by political, ideological, or religious beliefs; and is based on criminal actions (actions that would also violate the rules of war).⁸⁹

B. CURRENT THREATS

The increase in terrorist incidents abroad has caused the Los Angeles Fire Department to initiate programs and procedures to prepare emergency personnel to deal with terrorist attacks initiated locally. The first step toward preparing first responders for incidents of this kind is to teach them the nature of the threat—specifically, who the enemy is, and their motives and abilities.⁹⁰

According to the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*, “in the war on terrorism, the more we know about our enemy the better able we are to defeat that enemy.”⁹¹ This section will identify current threats and tactics used by specific terrorist groups that jeopardize our national security. First responders will be better prepared to combat terrorism once they know how to identify terrorists and what motivates them to attack. According to Bruce Hoffman, “the identity of these new types of adversaries is

⁸⁹ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 66.

⁹⁰ U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Federal Emergency Management Agency, United States Fire Administration, *Emergency Response to Terrorism Self Study*, (Emmitsburg, Maryland, 1999), 7.

⁹¹ Office of Homeland Security, *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. Office of Homeland Security (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 2002), 7.

also significant in terms of the countermeasures that the government, military, police [firefighters], and security services can employ against them.”⁹²

There are many terrorist groups that harbor grievances against the United States; however, “Al Qaeda remains America’s most immediate and serious threat despite our successes in disrupting its network in Afghanistan and elsewhere.”⁹³ Further, the federal government has named religious extremist movements in the Middle East and South Asia as the “most dangerous” international terrorist organizations.⁹⁴ Other significant threats have stemmed from domestic extremist groups, including the National Alliance, Aryan Nation, and the Puerto Rican separatists Los Macheteros.

The following is a breakdown of the various groups that have and will continue to pose the most serious threats to the homeland. The analysis is provided as a means to equip first responders with the knowledge needed to recognize the enemy among us.

IDEOLOGICAL TERRORIST GROUPS

Simply put, an ideology is a set of values or principles – a belief system – that may motivate people to act.⁹⁵ Some of the more common ideologies associated with terrorism are politically or religiously based. Other ideologies, such as white supremacy, are based on hate and fear. This section will identify the widespread groups that

⁹² Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 128.

⁹³ Office of Homeland Security, National Strategy for Homeland Security. Office of Homeland Security (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 2002), 10.

⁹⁴ Ibid., 10.

⁹⁵ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorism Recognition Handbook* (The Lyons Press, Guilford Connecticut, 2003), 52.

emergency responders should be aware of as they develop more comprehensive counterterrorism programs designed to mitigate the terrorist threat.

Domestic Terrorists

Domestic terrorists are groups or individuals who are based and operate entirely within the U.S. and Puerto Rico without foreign direction and whose acts are directed at elements of the U.S. Government or population. Perhaps the most memorable example of domestic terrorism is the Oklahoma City bombing in April 1995.⁹⁶ Timothy McVeigh used approximately 4800 pounds of explosives to kill 168 Americans when he bombed the Alfred P. Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City.

Left-wing Terrorists

Left-wing domestic terrorists are defined as, “terrorists that are out to destroy capitalism and replace it with a communist or socialist regime.”⁹⁷ The New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology describes left-wing terrorism in its Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings course as:

...groups that generally profess a revolutionary socialist doctrine and view themselves as protectors of the American people against capitalism and imperialism. They aim to bring about a change in the U. S. and believe that this can only be accomplished through revolution, such as well-orchestrated criminal actions rather than participation in the established political process.⁹⁸

⁹⁶ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-9.

⁹⁷ Council on Foreign Relations: In Cooperation with the Markle Foundation, “Terrorism Q & A.” Available from http://cfrterrorism.org/terrorism/types_print.html, 3.

⁹⁸ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-12.

The following is a list of the motivations and tactics of left-wing terrorist groups:

MOTIVATIONS

- Revolutionary socialist doctrine
- Protectors against capitalism
- Protectors against imperialism

TACTICS

- Bombings

Experts say the only left-wing terrorist group still active is the Puerto Rican separatists, but their activities have scaled back drastically over the years.

Right-wing Terrorists

Right-wing domestic terrorists are among the least organized terrorists; these groups, often dominated by skinheads, seek to do away with liberal democratic governments and create fascist states in their place.⁹⁹ The Ku Klux Klan, for example, is a widely-known white supremacist group whose activities demonstrate right-wing domestic terrorism. The 1996 bombing at the Centennial Park in Atlanta, Georgia, is another example of a right-wing terrorist act.

The following is a list of the motivations and tactics of right-wing terrorist groups:

MOTIVATIONS

- New World Order
- Gun control
- Apocalyptic views
- White supremacy
- Anti-taxation
- Anti-abortion

⁹⁹ Council on Foreign Relations: In Cooperation with the Markle Foundation, "Terrorism Q & A." Available from http://cfrrterrorism.org/terrorism/types_print.html, 3.

TACTICS

➤ Bombings

The FBI says that America's most serious domestic threat comes from right-wing militant groups including skinheads, Neo-Nazis, militia members, and the "Christian Patriot" movement.

Special Interest Terrorists

Lastly, special interest or "single-issue" terrorist groups pose a critical threat to the homeland. Some references use the term *special-interest terrorism*, which is described as resolutions sought to bring about widespread political change such as animal rights, environmental issues and the abortion movement.¹⁰⁰ Special-interest terrorism was first noticed in the early 1990s, and over the past five years has accounted for the majority of domestic terrorism incidents.

The following is a list of the motivations and tactics of special-interest terrorist groups:

MOTIVATIONS

- Animal rights
- Environmental issues
- Abortion rights
- Anti-abortion

TACTICS

- Bombings
- Arson
- Sabotage

¹⁰⁰ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-13.

One notable incident of special-interest terrorism is the 1998 fire at the Vail, Colorado ski resort that caused \$12 million in damage.

International (or Transnational) Terrorists

These groups can be defined as those whose leadership and personnel are primarily foreign and whose motives are primarily nationalist, ideological, or religious. Moreover, the United States' legal definition of transnational or international terrorism suggests that the acts occur primarily outside the territorial jurisdiction of the U.S., or transcend national boundaries by their means, the people they intend to terrorize, or the location in which the terrorists operate or seek asylum.¹⁰¹

International terrorism has also been described as the unlawful use of force or violence committed by a group or individual who has some connections to a foreign power or whose activities transcend national boundaries, against persons or property to intimidate or coerce a government, the civilian population, or any segment thereof, in furtherance of a political or social objective. Recent examples include the 1993 World Trade Center bombing.¹⁰²

MOTIVATIONS

- Support for state sponsors
- Hatred of western institutions
- Retribution for perceived wrongs
- Money

TACTICS

¹⁰¹ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 105.

¹⁰² U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Federal Emergency Management Agency, United States Fire Administration, *Emergency Response to Terrorism Self-Study*, (Emmitsburg, Maryland, 1999), 2-9.

- Bombings
- Hijackings
- Assassinations¹⁰³

Islamic Extremists

Terrorism experts agree that one of the greatest threats facing national security is the threat waged by international, and specifically Islamist terrorist groups. The Congressional Research Services stated in its January 2005 report that “radical Islamist fundamentalist groups, or groups using religion as a pretext, pose terrorist threats of varying kinds to U.S. interests and to friendly regimes.”¹⁰⁴ The opposition of many Muslims toward America is said to be rooted in our way of life – including our modern, secular, and pluralistic values.¹⁰⁵ According to Christopher Hewitt, “Islamic extremists hate the United States for what they see as its occupation of Saudi Arabia and its holy places, its blockade of Iraq, and its support for Israel.”¹⁰⁶

Their motivations are many, but Islamic extremists have found a common cause in their extreme dislike of the U.S. Al Qaeda has been successful in exploiting this hatred by rallying the various groups in a new terrorist alliance called the International Islamic Front for Jihad against the Jews and Crusaders. In February 1998 Osama bin Laden issued a fatwa, or Islamic religious ruling which stated:

The ruling to kill the Americans and their allies – civilian and military – is an individual duty for every Muslim who can do it in any country in

¹⁰³ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-14.

¹⁰⁴ Raphael Pearl, “Terrorism and National Security: Issues & Trends,” *CRS Issue Brief for Congress*, January 1, 2005, introduction.

¹⁰⁵ Bruce Hoffman, *Inside Terrorism*, (Columbia University Press, New York, 1998), 42.

¹⁰⁶ Christopher Hewitt, *Understanding Terrorism in America* (New York: Routledge, 2003), 120.

which it is possible to do it... We—with Allah’s help – call on every Muslim who believes in Allah and wishes to be rewarded to comply with Allah’s order to kill the Americans and plunder their money wherever and whenever they find it. We also call on Muslim ulema [religious figures], leaders, youths, and soldiers to launch the raid on Satan’s U.S. troops and the devil’s supporters allying with them, and to displace those who are behind them so that they may learn a lesson.¹⁰⁷

MOTIVATIONS

- Religion
- Hatred for Western values
- Foreign policy

TACTICS

- Bombing
- Assassination

State Sponsors of Terrorism

An ongoing threat against the United States’ security continues to be from the activities of state sponsors of international terrorism. Traditionally, those groups include Iran, Iraq, Sudan, Syria, Libya, Cuba, and North Korea. Vice President Cheney has cited Iran as being on top of his list of “World trouble spots,” and as being a threat to world peace and Middle East stability. Cheney also accuses Iran of being responsible for sponsoring terrorism against Americans as noted in a January 2005 Congressional Research Service Issue Brief.¹⁰⁸

Table 1 depicts the current condition of state-sponsored terrorism.

¹⁰⁷ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 98.

¹⁰⁸ Raphael Pearl, “Terrorism and National Security: Issues & Trends,” *CRS Issue Brief for Congress*, January 1, 2005, 1.

Table 1: Spectrum of State Supported Terrorism¹⁰⁹

Active Supporter of Terrorism	Passive or Less Active Supporter of Terrorism
--------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------

Iran

Syria

Cuba

North Korea

Libya

Sudan

State sponsors of terrorism continue to view violence as a means to manipulate foreign policy. Recently, North Korea, Cuba, and Syria have declined in this arena as the deteriorating economic conditions in the countries have so dictated. However, these countries continue to support Hizballah and Palestinian terrorist groups in their anti-American insurgent campaign in Iraq.

A horrific example of state-sponsored terrorism occurred on December 21, 1988, when two Libyan operatives shot down Pan Am Flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland, killing 270 people.¹¹⁰

MOTIVATIONS

- Foreign policy
- Hate for western institutions

¹⁰⁹ Raphael Pearl, "Terrorism and National Security: Issues & Trends," *CRS Issue Brief for Congress*, January 1, 2005, 4.

¹¹⁰ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 108.

- Retribution for perceived wrongs
- Money

TACTICS

- Bombing
- Hijackings
- Assassination

An awareness of these organizations by fire, EMS providers, and police officers is important because the various groups' ability to recruit, multiply, and splinter – thus spreading their hate messages within our country – is real. The concern is that the continuous media attention on international terrorist groups like Al Qaeda may cause local groups to become more violent in order to redirect attention back to their own objectives. Additionally, complacency among civilians and first responders is an issue because we have not been attacked from outside in over four years.

C. TERRORIST STRATEGIES

Acts of terrorism, whether domestic or international, are not random. Terrorists, like any other successful organization, use effective strategy to strike in a seemingly random manner, but these acts are traditionally well-planned and -implemented events. This misconception that terrorists' attacks are spontaneous, compounded by the fact that first responders' best-developed strategies enable them to respond to emergencies rather than prevent them, is a critical obstacle in the prevention of these tragedies. If the emergency service community is to be proactive in its efforts to combat terrorism, it will be required to prepare strategies to deal with terrorists. Responders will benefit from

studying and learning terrorists' strategies so as to predict, identify, and interrupt them in their planning stages.

In his early writings on terrorist bombing, Johannes Most argued that the strategy of terrorism rests on a number of connected propositions: "1. Outrageous violence will seize the public imagination; 2. Its audience can thus be awakened to political issues; 3. Violence is inherently empowering, and 'a cleansing force'; 4. Systematic violence can threaten the state and impel it into de-legitimizing reactions; 5. Violence can destabilize the social order and threaten social breakdown (the 'spiral of terror' and counter-terror); and 6. Ultimately the people will reject the government and turn to the terrorists."¹¹¹

More recently, terrorist specialists have identified nine strategic goals of terrorism:

1. **Intimidation:** Attacks are designed to transmit fear to the victims so they will bend to the will of the terrorist group in the future.
2. **Destruction:** Attacks are intended to destroy the social or political order and enemies through the actual destruction of commerce, property, or infrastructure.
3. **Acquisition:** Attacks designed to gain new recruits, money, or weapons could be accomplished through robbery, raids on armories, or impressing a sponsor with the boldness of the attack.
4. **Extortion or demand:** Attacks require the victim to make some concessions, such as parting with money, or force another choice the victim does not wish to make.
5. **Influence:** Attacks are designed to gain power or set in motion acts that might change or influence policies and/or political decisions.
6. **Overreaction:** Attacks are designed to ensure that a government overreacts and oppresses its own people. Such overreaction may be projected through curtailment of certain basic freedoms of individuals, through the limiting of basic human rights, or through actions that may be seen as more horrific than those of the terrorist. The 2003 U.S. invasion of Iraq is considered by many experts an overreaction to the 9/11 attacks.
7. **Revenge and reciprocity:** Attacks carried out to exact revenge upon an enemy for the death of a group member or damage to the group's integrity.

¹¹¹ Charles Townshend, *Terrorism: A Very Short Introduction* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002), 13.

8. **Satisfaction:** The book *Who Becomes a Terrorist and Why* asserts that some terrorist leaders attack just for the satisfaction of harming their “enemy,” and this is borne out by the fact that such groups (including al-Qaeda) never claim responsibility.
9. **Survival:** Attacks demonstrate that the terrorist group is still active. This strategy is often used in conjunction with acquisition, when sponsors need to be assured that the group is viable.¹¹²

There are two other common strategies in the world of terrorist plotting – they are misdirection and deception. Misdirection, according to Nance, is the feint strategy of leading authorities to believe that the terrorist attack will occur in one spot, and then striking in another. Deception is the strategy of masking the true intent of the approach or execution of an attack.¹¹³ An example of misdirection is when a terrorist group explodes a small bomb in one place while the actual attack will occur elsewhere after law enforcement or fire services have responded to the first explosion. Acts of deception have been used in the past when terrorists have disguised themselves in courier or firefighter uniforms to gain entry into a target and then initiate an attack.

D. TERRORIST TACTICS

Although the ideologies of terrorists vary, they often utilize many of the same tactics. This section will first discuss tactical objectives of the terrorist operatives, and then categorize the most common tactics themselves.

It is critical for homeland security professionals, including firefighters, EMS providers, police officers, and security personnel to learn their enemies’ capabilities. Tactical specialists like SWAT officers and Navy SEALs have been studying the tactics

¹¹² Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 86.

¹¹³ Ibid., 87.

and strategies of their opponents for years so that they can employ effective counter measures against them. This lesson is equally important for firefighters in their pursuit of twenty-first century terrorism operations.

First, it is prudent to teach emergency responders the tactical objectives of terrorist organizations. Tactical objectives are basically “street-level goals” of the actors conducting the attack; these fall into four general categories: action, demonstration, demands, and escape.

1) Action: Attacks show that terrorists are capable of carrying out the operation as planned. Terrorists on the street level want to successfully execute a violent operation, propagate the news of the operation, and make demands for concessions or influence. Successful or unsuccessful, any attack that gets out the door of the safe house meets this goal.

2) Demonstration: The objective is to attract the attention of the victim and society through the news media or word of mouth, and to demonstrate the power of the terrorists. The group must publicize the event in such a way that the strategic goals are eventually met. Unfortunately, this goal is often met through the execution of hostages, indiscriminate bombings in crowded areas, or dramatic acts such as skyjackings. News media coverage is critical to this goal.

3) Demands: Often the terrorist group will make demands whether a terrorist act is successful or not.

4) Escape: Survival is becoming less of an option for many terrorists as we witness the increased usage of suicide/martyrdom attacks. This is a tactical objective (the terrorists

themselves may want to escape), not a strategic one, because the leadership may be concerned only with the terrorist act and not the life of the terrorist.¹¹⁴

Again, ideologies may vary significantly, but tactics used by terrorists have been the same for years. Table 1 is a breakdown of terrorist tactics used worldwide, as noted in the U.S. Department of State's "Patterns of Global Terrorism."¹¹⁵

Table 1: TERRORIST TACTICS WORLDWIDE ATTACKS	
ASSASSINATIONS	6 %
OTHER	10 %
HIJACKINGS	12 %
ARMED ATTACKS	22 %
BOMBINGS	50 %

BOMBING

Bombing is the most widely-used terrorist tactic. According to the FBI, the greatest percentage of terrorist attacks in the United States involves bombings. There are several reasons why terrorists use explosives in their attacks:

- Dramatic, low-risk, and they draw attention
- Few skills are needed
- Can execute attack remotely
- Large groups are not required
- Components are readily available
- Government sponsors are difficult to identify
- Forensic evidence is difficult to identify, collect and assemble¹¹⁶

¹¹⁴ Malcolm W. Nance, *Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 87.

¹¹⁵ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-17.

This reasoning has been confirmed by Al Qaeda in its training manual, which recommends the use of explosives because “they are believed to be the safest weapon...Using explosives allows them to get away from enemy personnel and to avoid being arrested...Explosives strike the enemy with sheer terror and fright.”¹¹⁷ Moreover, explosives have continued to be a highly desirable tactic because they are universally available, cheap, feature multiple and easy delivery methods, are highly concealable, and offer an outstanding destruction-to-weight ratio.¹¹⁸

Modern technology and ingenuity has encouraged terrorists to create new ways of delivering their bombs. Some of the more popular mechanisms have been manual bombings, standoff bombings, vehicle and car bombings, letter bombings, aircraft bombings, and suicide/martyrdom bombings.

KIDNAPPING AND HOSTAGE-TAKING

Kidnapping and hostage-taking are unique in that they both require extensive planning and logistical support. Both tactics have been proven to be an effective means of raising money and spreading propaganda. A widely-publicized kidnapping occurred in 2002 when terrorists abducted Wall Street Journal Reporter Daniel Pearl in Pakistan and then beheaded him. A video camera was used to film the tragedy and then broadcast on

¹¹⁶ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-18.

¹¹⁷ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 147.

¹¹⁸ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 256.

television for the entire world to see. This horrific tactic continues to be favored in Italy, Ireland, Central and South America, and is being used more often in the Middle East.¹¹⁹

Although hostage-taking is often confused with kidnapping, it is a distinct tactic in its own right. Hostage-taking refers to the seizure of a group of victims in order to gain publicity or concessions.¹²⁰ Actors who engage in this tactic are employing the method primarily as a propaganda tool to maximize the effect of violence for political or economic gains.¹²¹ A prime example of this tactic occurred during the Munich Olympics in 1972, when Palestinian terrorists captured and later killed Israeli athletes in order to draw attention to their cause.

HIJACKINGS

Hijacking occurs when a vehicle (land or air) is stolen in order to be converted into a bomb or other destructive device.¹²² Perhaps the most remarkable skyjacking in recent history occurred on September 11, 2001 when a group of nineteen Al Qaeda operatives seized four American airliners and used them as human-guided weapons of mass destruction.

ASSASSINATIONS

A specialized form of violence that has proven to be a very effective terrorist tool is assassination. Known as the ultimate weapon of intimidation against a target group,

¹¹⁹ Frank Bolt, Kenneth Dudonis, and David Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 111.

¹²⁰ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 144.

¹²¹ Frank Bolt, Kenneth Dudonis, and David Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 53.

¹²² Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 273.

the attacks are designed to gain maximum media attention as well as to have a major psychological impact on the victims' constituents.¹²³ Assassination has accomplished by many different means, including blade, poison, blunt force, hanging, firearm, sniper, explosives/ambush, drive-by vehicle, and light infantry weapons.¹²⁴

AMBUSHES

A surprise attack, or ambush, occurs from a concealed position on a moving or temporarily non-moving target. This tactic is commonly used by the military and has more recently been plagiarized and used abroad by anti-American insurgents. The Al Qaeda Training Manual includes instructions on ambushes and recommends blocking the victim's car in traffic, then opening fire.¹²⁵

SABOTAGE

Sabotage is an act carried out for the intentional destruction of property or for the purpose of disrupting industrial or other governmental operations.¹²⁶ Acts of sabotage have included blockading military installations, looting during street demonstrations, civil disobedience incidents, the disruption of transportation systems, damage to public or private property, etc. Such activities are inflicted to cause financial loss and to instill fear.¹²⁷

¹²³ Frank Bolt, Kenneth Dudonis, and David Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 91.

¹²⁴ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorism Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 259.

¹²⁵ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 143.

¹²⁶ Frank Bolt, Kenneth Dudonis, and David Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 91.

¹²⁷ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 143.

The newest form of sabotage exists in the threats of cyber and ecological terrorism. Cyber, or communications attacks can be delivered via the Internet, or more specifically by e-mail. Public and governmental information, command and control systems, computers, and intelligence collection mechanisms are all susceptible to attack. An example of this recently occurred when the City of Long Beach Fire Department lost its 911 communications capabilities. Losing this function is a very effective tactic in preventing first responders from assisting the public in time of need.

Ecological attack is a tactic that is often used in conjunction with other tactics in an effort to create large-scale ecological disasters. This form of attack is initiated more to damage the natural environment over the long-term. Such attacks could include a hazardous materials release, or by spilling large quantities of toxic materials into the environment. These types of attacks are often used by terrorists as a diversion to emergency personnel from other illegal activities.¹²⁸

ANTI-AIRCRAFT MISSILES

Antiaircraft missiles are also known as MANPADS (Man portable). They weigh only 40 pounds and have been used effectively by terrorists to bring down jet liners. A 2004 account of this tactic identified at least five large jet liners that had been attacked, and in two cases all people on board were killed.¹²⁹ These are devices that can be recognized by LAFD members as they conduct daily operations in and around Los Angeles International Airport. The MANPAD is a long tube that is fired off the shoulder

¹²⁸ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 280.

¹²⁹ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 144.

of the operative. It resembles a green pipe that is more than five feet long and is usually stored in a case that is seven feet long.

ARSON

Arson is the simplest terrorist tactic and can be effectively initiated by the group's most junior members. Arson used as a terrorist tactic includes setting fire to a building, gas station, ammunition facility, oil, fertilizer, or grain storage facility, or petroleum refinery. Ships or trucks transporting flammable liquids can also be targeted as weapons of mass destruction.¹³⁰ Firefighters should have a heightened awareness of incidents of arson, as they are typically the first to arrive on the scene of a fire-related emergency.

MARITIME ATTACKS

The sea has become a common battleground for terrorist attack. There are many ways for terrorists to instigate attacks on the sea including mar-jacking (the seizure of a vessel), oil platforms, combat swimmer or diver, light infantry weapons assault from land or sea, or by using a vessel as a weapon, as in the 2000 attack on the U.S.S. Cole in Yemen. As the Port of Los Angeles is within the jurisdiction of the LAFD, maritime attacks should be considered as a likely avenue of assault.

INDUSTRIAL / INFRASTRUCTURE ATTACK

Domestic and international terrorists have employed attacks upon critical infrastructure as a means to instill fear and uncertainty in the government's ability to safely protect its citizens. Tactics have ranged from disturbances to the public

¹³⁰ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 258.

transportation systems, electrical grids, petroleum refineries, chemical plants, agriculture industries, and communications systems.¹³¹

WEAPONS OF MASS DESTRUCTION

Enemies are seeking new and more creative means of attacking the United States. A weapon of mass destruction (WMD) allows them to achieve such an attack by the selection of multiple locations, which in turn results in greater levels of damage and disruption. Terrorists can maximize their effects by conducting multiple well-orchestrated attacks. A WMD incident may involve several attacks with the same kind of weapon striking at several geographically dispersed areas such as seen on 9/11. WMD attacks are further designed to achieve maximum strain on resources and to create a heightened sense of vulnerability.¹³²

Terrorists have expanded their operations to target critical infrastructure as means of magnifying a strike's disruptive effects. Such raids have been projected to damage our national security and economic stability by attacking the following sectors:

- Agriculture
- Food
- Water
- Public health
- Emergency services
- Government
- Defense industry
- Information and telecommunications
- Energy
- Transportation
- Banking and finance
- Chemical industry

¹³¹ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 273.

¹³² Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 377.

- Postal and shipping industries¹³³

The tactics used in WMD attacks are vast and include chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and explosive incidents. These attacks can be carried out individually or in combination to reap dramatic results for the operatives.

SUICIDE TERRORISM

Suicide bombings are “the most feared and rapidly expanding form of terrorism worldwide.”¹³⁴ The recent terrorist attacks in London have magnified the fact that suicide terrorism is moving west and may soon be a problem in the United States. In May 2002, FBI Director Robert Mueller III said that future suicide attacks on American soil are “inevitable.”¹³⁵ Thus, many local law enforcement agencies are taking action by training line officers to recognize the indicators of suicide terrorism.

The fact is that police officers will not be responding to these incidents alone; they may not even be the first responders on scene. Firefighters, Paramedics, and Emergency Medical Technicians (EMTs) will be responding to incidents involving suicide bombers and may presently be ill-prepared to perform their duties and responsibilities.

Operational advantages of suicide bombings over normal terrorist bombings include:

- Superior dedication to the mission
- Precise delivery of the device to the target
- Harder targets can be attacked

¹³³ Office of Homeland Security, National Strategy for Homeland Security. Office of Homeland Security (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 2002), 30.

¹³⁴ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 264.

¹³⁵ SFGate.com, “Mueller Says Walk-in Bombers Inevitable in United States,” available from <http://www.sfgate.com>, accessed November 26, 2005.

- The device has no window of vulnerability
- No planned egress is required
- No one is left alive to interrogate
- No burden of wounded comrades exists
- Psychological factors
- Blood borne pathogens can be delivered

Two basic types of suicide bombers exist — individual and vehicular. Each has its advantages and limitations in the eyes of the perpetrators.

- **Individual:** These bombers carry the explosive device either on their body or within an object. Bombers can carry explosives in vests or aprons, belts, satchels, backpacks, the sole of a shoe, and even bras and boxer shorts. Among the objects bombers have used to carry an explosive device are boxes, gym bags, briefcases, guitar cases, computers, TV cameras, birdcages, and even a watermelon. Because explosive devices may be so well disguised, innocent individuals can be tricked into carrying them. Underwater divers can attack ships with suicide satchels or limpet mine charges.

The major limitations of individual suicide bombers are: (1) they can carry only a limited amount of explosives and (2) they have a limited range on foot. Advantages of these bombers are: (1) the logistical requirements to field them are much less demanding than those required to field a vehicular bomb and (2) they can reach targets that vehicular bombs may not be able to threaten, such as very important persons (VIPs), commercial aircraft, and the inside of venues such as shopping malls.

- **Vehicular:** All motorized and non-motorized vehicles on land, air, and sea have the potential to be turned into a suicide bomb delivery platform. Car and truck bombs are most common, but commercial airliners, motorcycles and bicycles, donkey carts, small sailing craft, speedboats, and even submarines have all been utilized or attempted. Concerns have also been expressed over the potential use of light planes, micro lights, gliders, and small helicopters.

The major advantages of vehicular suicide bombing are: (1) the ability to carry a large explosive payload and (2) high levels of mobility. In addition, donkey carts and

bicycles are valued for their innocent appearance (who would expect explosives inside a bicycle frame?), while a microlight might be useful for its ability to access a hard-to-reach target. Limitations of vehicular bombing are the increased logistical needs and the necessity of hiding the vehicles before its use in the suicide mission.

E. TARGETS OF TERRORISM

For many years the LAFD has been completing “pre-fire” inspections of potentially high hazard (or high probability) occupancies within the fire station districts on the city of Los Angeles. The purpose of these inspections is to learn about the business or occupancy and its potential hazards before fire companies have to respond under emergency conditions. The Building Inventory Program is a program that takes the information gathered at the “pre-fire” inspections and inserts it into a standardized format which is then bound and placed on every fire apparatus in the city. Topics such as hazardous chemical storage, ingress, egress, fire protection systems, occupancy loads, and emergency contact information are several of the topics that are included in these plans, which are maintained in the Building Inventory Books. This information has been invaluable in assisting fire fighters when responding to a situation in a previously assessed property.

Given the challenges fire service personnel now face in response to terrorism, a more thorough awareness regarding “target hazards” must be visited. In the past, the focus of the pre-fire inspections was occupancies with high life loss potential, hazardous processing facilities, and buildings under construction. These types of occupancies continue to be significant, but more appreciation needs to be given to learning about terrorist targets that have been commonly used in recent attacks. According to the

Federal Bureau of Investigation’s “Terrorism in the United States,” the most terrorist attacks occur at commercial establishments and over 39% are waged upon government buildings, military personnel, and military facilities. See Table 1 for a detailed analysis.

Table 1: Patterns of United States Terrorist Targets¹³⁶

PATTERNS OF U. S. TERRORIST TARGETS	
EDUCATIONAL BUILDINGS	4 %
DIPLOMATIC BUILDINGS	10 %
PRIVATE RESIDENCES	11 %
GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS	19 %
MILITARY PERSONNEL / FACILITIES	20 %
COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS	36 %

This section will discuss how terrorists select their targets, identify the various target categories used in the past, and recommend those indicators and reportable items that first responders should know as they carry out their missions in today’s environment.

TARGET SELECTION

Terrorist target selection is a process that is observable and predictable; therefore LAFD personnel can and should achieve an understanding of it. Target selection depends on a number of factors, including the desires of the senior leadership of the terrorist organization, the feasibility of the operational plan as evaluated by the group’s senior

¹³⁶ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-18.

leadership, and the street level data-collection abilities and recommendations of the terrorist intelligence cell responsible for that function. The following are factors that will be considered by operatives as they select a target for their master plan:

- The selection of a target is based on the strategic importance and physical characteristics of the target; this is known in military parlance as targeteering. Generally, the people who evaluate and eventually choose the target are known as targeteers.
- Terrorist field leadership and/or the intelligence cell will normally select the target, but anyone in the group can give input.
- Once the strategic goals of the group are met the senior leader will issue an attack or “go” order. However, sometimes targets are struck for symbolic or political reasons.

The targeteer uses three basic tactical actions in deciding on a specific target, all of which are designed to achieve maximum dramatic impact:

1. **Speed** – the target must be struck quickly to enhance the effect of fear.
2. **Surprise** – the victims must be taken completely unaware; nothing should transmit the impending operation except only the vaguest of threats.
3. **Violence of action** – the incident should strike terror and fear into the hearts of its victims through its absolute, horrific violence.¹³⁷

The M.O.M. Target Selection Principle is the criterion that operations expert Malcolm Nance suggests terrorist targeteers will use, much in the same way military strategists use it in target selection.

- **Motive** – Does the group have a reason for selecting this target?
- **Opportunity** – Does the group have the opportunity to affect a strike against its enemies that is both meaningful and effective? The targeteer will make it a priority to create or wait for the appropriate time, circumstances, and environment to strike.
- **Means** – Does the group have the materials, manpower, secrecy, and support to carry out the mission?

¹³⁷ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 90-1.

Once the answer to M.O.M. becomes “yes,” the operational plan moves forward and attack is imminent.

Target selection and human risks in the selection process are usually dependent upon two factors—symbolic and economic value. The following are potential targets that constitute high-profile (symbolic) and high-value (economic) targets.¹³⁸

Table 2: Potential Terrorist Targets¹³⁹

▪ FEDERAL, STATE, & LOCAL GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS
▪ MASS TRANSIT FACILITIES (SUBWAYS, AIRPORTS, TRAIN STATIONS)
▪ PUBLIC BUILDING & ASSEMBLY AREAS (SHOPPING MALLS, SPORTS ARENAS, THEATERS)
▪ CONTROVERSIAL BUSINESSES (ABORTION CLINICS, FUR STORES, ETC.)
▪ COMMUNICATION & UTILITY FACILITIES
▪ WATER SUPPLY FACILITIES
▪ RESEARCH LABORATORIES (MILITARY & ANIMAL FACILITIES)
▪ OTHER LOCATIONS WHERE LARGE GROUPS CONGREGATE

¹³⁸ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 140.

¹³⁹ New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, *Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings Performance Level Direct/Indirect Course Participant Guide*, (New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, New Mexico, 2004), 2-16.

Attacks on symbolic targets represent the majority of strikes on American citizens. Some examples include embassies and national airliners, which house our nation's diplomats and carry our nation's citizenry, respectively. Both kinds of targets bear the American flag. It is widely believed that the World Trade Center buildings were chosen by Al Qaeda, due to their economic value and symbolism: the perfect marriage of both types.¹⁴⁰

GENERAL TARGET CATEGORIES

Terrorist target selection is generally divided into two basic types: hard and soft targets. Hard targets are people, structures, or locations that are secure and therefore are difficult to attack. The challenges in attacking these targets may include, but are not limited to: heavy physical security, active counter-surveillance or security cameras, random routines and patterns of operations, and air cover. Military bases and the White House are examples of hard targets.

Soft targets also include people, structures, or locations, but they have far less, if any, security, and have open public access. Soft targets generally have poor or no physical security; physical security that is made to look hard but is actually weak; little or no counter-surveillance or video cameras; set routines and patterns of operation; and no ability to respond to an attack.¹⁴¹

SPECIFIC TARGET CATEGORIES

¹⁴⁰ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 140.

¹⁴¹ Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003), 91-2.

According to *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, specific target selection categories have their origins in the defense intelligence community but have been modified to enhance terrorism intelligence needs. Depending on the strategies that terrorist groups employ, the specific targets they select will fall into some of the following categories.

Strategic-value targets – those that would have an impact on the long-term ability of a victim society to function in a crisis, or that represent mass infrastructure value: entire cities; national command centers and national security locations; strategic reserves such as fuel depots, fuel refineries, or nuclear storage facilities; or executive leadership, such as the president or cabinet members.

High-payoff targets – if damaged or destroyed will immediately contribute to ongoing strategic plans of the terrorist group or its economic allies such as critical energy targets, the stock exchange or other economic trading hubs.

High-value targets – if damaged or destroyed will contribute to the degradation of the victim society's ability to respond militarily or sustain itself economically. These targets include military and federal law enforcement headquarters or emergency command centers; federal government offices and judicial centers; or critical commerce personalities.

Low-value targets – if damaged or destroyed will contribute to localized fear and temporary harassment of the victim society. These targets include localized transportation systems and non-critical public or commercial infrastructure facilities.

Tactical-value targets – if damaged or destroyed will degrade local law enforcement (and fire)'s ability to respond to threats in the immediate area of the attack. These targets

include military bases or equipment; police or military dispatch centers; low-level law enforcement supervisors; low-level military or civilian leadership; or individual or small numbers of military, police, or fire services.

Symbolic-value targets – if damaged or destroyed will heighten public fear of the terrorist group: civilians; national treasures and landmarks; prominent public structures; and national representatives or diplomats.

Ecological-value targets – if damaged or destroyed will damage the natural resources of a victim society such as large bodies of water or wide areas of agricultural resources and industries.

As the LAFD moves forward in its counterintelligence planning, careful consideration should be given to these seven specific target categories.

TARGETING INDICATORS AND REPORTABLE ITEMS

The Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Department of Homeland Security combined efforts to develop the *Terrorist Threats to the U. S. Homeland Reporting Guide* (TTRG):¹⁴²

The purpose of the TTRG is to leverage the vast information collection and reporting resources of our state, local and tribal law enforcement partners, as well as other first responder partners, in recognizing activities or conditions that may be indicative of terrorist activity. State and local organizations are on the front line in the war against terror and therefore have a critical role as primary sources of information. Timely and relevant information from the [front lines] is critical to the identifications of terrorists and their supporters, development of insights into their plans and intentions, subsequent disruption of their operations.¹⁴³

¹⁴² Federal Bureau of Investigation and Department of Homeland Security, *Terrorist Threats to the U.S. Homeland: Reporting Guide*, <http://www.leo.gov>.

¹⁴³ Ibid., 3.

Indicators and reportable items that firefighters and paramedics should be keenly aware of include:

- Presence in a residence or vehicle of hardcopy or electronic materials (e.g., photographs or text descriptions/biographies) of important U.S. officials, facilities, security points, etc.;
- Presence of detailed diagrams and notes about buildings, bridges, ports, airfields, tunnels, etc.;
- Tests of security at airports, railway terminals, or border crossings and other high priority targets;
- Details on personal security forces and operating procedures;
- Activities to collect information about important persons such as their residence, work schedule, travel routes, family, acquaintances, physicians, vehicles, free time pursuits and venues, etc.;
- Succession of detailed reconnaissance activities;
- Theft of official uniforms or vehicles that would allow access to restricted areas;
- Use of Internet or other media or methodologies for surveillance, mapping and research of prospective infrastructure and physical targets;
- Surveillance of targets such as dams, airfields, tunnels, bridges, nuclear facilities, government agency headquarters, or other symbolic sites;
- Stated animosities towards specific individuals or groups;
- Use of almanacs and other reference materials that may signal operational intentions;
- Communications chatter using general terms or coded language which points to categories of targets and their location in the United States or abroad;
- Operational testing or reconnaissance in venues associated with targets of interest (e.g., airlines, mass transit, transportation infrastructure, energy infrastructure, or tourist attractions);
- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in government personnel and important personalities;

- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in strategic buildings, important establishments, military bases, airports, seaports, border crossing points, embassies, and radio and television stations;
- Attempts to recruit informants or agents who are knowledgeable about persons or facilities, including employees at border crossings, airports, and seaports;
- Theft of plans or blueprints associated with strategic sites;
- Surveillance or testing of security at active oil pipelines;
- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in medical research labs;
- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in symbols of American power or pride: monuments, military bases, government buildings, famous tourist attractions and cities;
- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in American symbols of religion: synagogues, Jewish cultural centers, etc.;
- Attempts to compromise the integrity of a system—especially systems that control utilities, government sites, financial records, information, or communication;
- Interest by known or suspected terrorists in commercial targets such as theme parks or sporting events;
- Interest in ships/freighters carrying explosive cargo; and
- Interest in cruise ship itineraries and port schedules.

At first glance these indicators and reportable items may seem far-fetched, but when one considers the demographics of Los Angeles and ponders the incalculable array of potential target opportunities, these considerations become much more significant.

MANAGING THE RISKS

According to *The Counterterrorism Handbook*, “one of the more difficult challenges facing defense planners is accurately assessing the likelihood of any particular

person, piece of property, or service becoming the target of a terrorist attack.”¹⁴⁴ The LAFD has been working toward accurately assessing targets and vulnerabilities for nearly two years. This program is sponsored by the Department of Homeland Security and is designed to facilitate the strategic and tactical application and management of information related to the prevention of terrorist activity in Los Angeles. Operation Archangel is a pilot program that is being developed in an effort to address the critical infrastructure protection initiatives as outlined in the *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. If the model is successful it will be implemented nationally as a recognized smart practice.

Furthermore, Archangel is intended to create an opportunity for multi-agency, multi-disciplinary cooperation toward prevention, deterrence, response, and consequence management. At the time of this writing the partners contributing to the program are LAFD, LAPD, Los Angeles County Sheriff and Fire Departments, the California State Office of Homeland Security, and the Department of Homeland Security. There are four distinct initiatives within Operation Archangel:

1. **Identification and Prioritization of Critical Assets:** For the identification of assets deemed critical infrastructure as outlined in the Archangel Critical Asset Definition.
2. **Critical Asset Assessments (CAAs):** A three-tiered template for Critical Asset Assessments from a multi-agency perspective includes conducting vulnerability

¹⁴⁴ Frank Boltz Jr., Kenneth J. Dudonis, and David P. Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 25.

assessments, the creation of Risk Information Folders, and the development of site-specific pre-incident security enhancement plans.

3. **Archangel Critical Asset Management Systems (ACAMS):** An interoperable database designed to manage a wealth of information associated with critical assets.
4. **Archangel Security Augmentation Teams:** A plainclothes, low-profile team of personnel specifically trained and uniquely equipped to provide undercover security to a threatened asset.

In *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism*, risk management techniques are recommended for the implementation of critical infrastructure protection measures. Moreover, comprehensive risk management will incorporate vulnerability and threat assessments. The assessments are analyzed to determine the potential for the exploitation of security weaknesses. The priorities are then established for reducing risks by adopting measures to prevent, recover from, or mitigate the effects of a terrorist attack.¹⁴⁵

Sauter and Carafano explain five additional critical steps in an effective risk management process. First, asset assessment is the process that focuses on identifying the assets which are most valuable and those targets whose destruction would have the worst consequences. Second, a threat assessment entails determining who would want to attack certain targets and how these attacks might be initiated. Third, vulnerability assessments are completed to determine security vulnerabilities in targets, and efforts are

¹⁴⁵ Mark A. Sauter and James Jay Carafano, *Homeland Security: A Complete Guide to Understanding, Preventing, and Surviving Terrorism* (New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, 2005), 287.

geared toward measuring openness for attack. Fourth, a risk assessment is conducted to combine and weigh the asset, threat, and vulnerability of the target. Finally, identification of countermeasures to reduce risks should be assigned to the key potential targets.¹⁴⁶

The *Counterterrorism Handbook* goes on to recommend several potential occupancies of particular interest to terrorist operatives planning an attack. Particular care should be directed to companies heavily involved in the military-industrial complex; financial institutions; businesses working with advanced technologies, particularly weapons or defense systems; companies involved with petrochemical processing or storage or other environmentally sensitive products; utility companies; companies with manufacturing operations in third-world or developing countries; companies with operations in politically sensitive countries such as Israel, Sri Lanka, and Spain; companies with emotional or political implications such as a lumber manufacturers or abortion clinics; and corporations recognized throughout the world for their size, marketplace dominance, history, status, or simply for being known as an American symbol.¹⁴⁷

F. FIREFIGHTERS AND SITUATIONAL AWARENESS

Among the various natural disasters the city of Los Angeles has faced throughout its history, catastrophic wildland fires stand out as having claimed many lives and caused extensive property damage. To that end, annual brush fire training is mandated for all

¹⁴⁶ Ibid., 289.

¹⁴⁷ Frank Boltz Jr., Kenneth J. Dudonis, and David P. Schultz, *Counterterrorism Handbook: Tactics, Procedures, and Techniques* (Florida: CRC Press, 2002), 26.

personnel of the LAFD. In addition to this, every fire officer is required to take a course in wildland fire behavior and weather conditions. Furthermore, all personnel are required to be familiar with *Book 100 (LAFD Brush Fire Operations) and Training Bulletin*, which details hazards associated with wildland firefighting operations. These training measures ensure that firefighters are adequately prepared and have situational awareness in the rapidly changing circumstances of a wildland fire. Even so, fatalities occur.

The 1996 Calabasas Fire in Malibu, California is a prime example of what can go wrong in this situation. Ten firefighters were overrun by fire and seriously burned because they were not aware of their surroundings. The critical errors made in this particular fire were the firefighters' failure to recognize the wind change, topography, and terrain, all of which aligned to create an unmanageable conflagration. In the end, one LAFD firefighter was critically injured and had to be airlifted from the scene to a nearby burn center.¹⁴⁸ Since the Calabasas Fire, the department has redoubled its efforts training in brush firefighting operations because of the inherent danger linked with this type of hazard.

The twenty-first century threat of terrorism is another matter that will require a similar dedication to training. Just as fire behavior is predictable, so too are terrorist planning operations. Firefighter's who are more aware of their surroundings, whether in emergency or non-emergency situations, will be more apt to recognize suspicious activities transpiring around them. A recent terror plot in Australia was thwarted by an observant lawyer going about his daily routine: As he waited for a bus he noticed a man

¹⁴⁸ Doug Campbell, "Common Tactical Errors on the Fireground," The Campbell Prediction System, November 12, 2005, pg 4:available from <http://www.dougsfire.com/cmerror.htm>; accessed 11December 2005.

filming the Australian Stock Exchange building with a small home video camera. Not long after this incident another Melbournian spotted someone filming the city train station. Both citizens took the time to report these suspicious activities. Police were then able to trace the car used in both cases to a known terrorist and were able to prevent the attack.¹⁴⁹

“Perhaps the most important aspect for any emergency responder is awareness of their surroundings,” otherwise known as situational awareness.¹⁵⁰ No matter what the situation – fire, EMS, building inspections, or community relations events – firefighters are ideally situated to observe odd or suspicious activity in their jurisdictions. The Department of Defense defines situational awareness as “the knowledge of where you are, where other friendly elements are located, and the status, state, and location of the enemy.”¹⁵¹ Further information on situational awareness broadly describes a person’s state of knowledge or mental model of the situation around him or her. The origins of this concept can be traced back to the aviation industry where the term was used to describe awareness of tactical situations during aerial warfare. Today’s challenge of terrorist attacks will require that those in the front line of defense (including fire and EMS responders) be as knowledgeable as possible.

Malcolm Nance states that “the most difficult and critical component of terrorism education is learning how to recognize and predict an attack. Those responsible for

¹⁴⁹ *Critical Infrastructure Report*, Los Angeles Terrorism Early Warning Group, 01 December 2005, 1.

¹⁵⁰ Paul M. Maniscalco and Hank T. Christen, *Understanding Terrorist and Managing the Consequences* (New York: Prentice Hall, 2002), 273.

¹⁵¹ Joint Chiefs of Staff, Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms “Realizing the Potential of C41,” 7 December 1998, 2.

homeland security need to be well versed in terrorist attack pre-incident indicators (TAPI's). TAPI's are behaviors; they are actions terrorists must take before they can carry out an attack.”¹⁵²The LAFD has taken an active role in homeland security planning, but has fallen short in teaching line personnel the indicators of terrorist planning activities. Because Los Angeles is a known target of future terrorist attack, it is critical that local first responders have answers to the following questions:

- Who is a threat?
- What options do those people have for carrying out an attack?
- How might an attack be carried out?
- What behaviors can be observed when they are preparing or ready to attack?¹⁵³

Training programs have been used to help people develop better situational awareness by building relevant skills. Endsley, an expert in situational awareness, identifies those relevant skills as communication skills, scan patterns, and contingency planning. Developing these skills can help an individual build a large repertoire of relevant memory stores. Increasing responder awareness of terrorist operations, tactics, surveillance techniques, tools, activities, strategies, and target selection will improve the opportunity for responders to build the memory stores of which Endsley speaks.¹⁵⁴

¹⁵² Malcolm W. Nance, *The Terrorist Recognition Handbook*, (Connecticut: The Lyons Press, 2003, 3.

¹⁵³Ibid., 3-5.

¹⁵⁴ Situational Awareness available from Wikipedia: accessed 21 November 2005, 1.

V. READING LIST AND EXISTING TRAINING PROGRAMS

A wide array of literature contributed to this partial training curriculum; it is listed here in order to provide access for reference or further study.

Suggested Readings:

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[database online]. Washington, DC, 2003 Available from
<http://purl.access.gpo.gov/GPO/LPS42747>.

United States. Office of Homeland Security. 2002. *National Strategy for Homeland Security*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Homeland Security. Access:
<http://purl.access.gpo.gov/GPO/LPS20641>.

Suggested Training Courses:

Prevention and Response to Suicide Bombing Incidents: Performance Level Course
by New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology & DHS

Incident Response to Terrorist Bombings: Performance Level Direct/Indirect
Delivery Course by New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology & DHS

Emergency Response to Terrorism Self-Study by DOJ, FEMA, USFA, & NFPA

Anti-Terrorism Intelligence Awareness Training Program: Resources for the Law
Enforcement Officer by National Center for State and Local Law Enforcement
Training & DHS

Suggested Websites:

<http://www.dhs.gov/>

<http://www.fema.gov/>

<http://www.mipt.org/>

<http://www.usfa.fema.gov/>

www.LLIS.gov

<http://www.chds.us/public.php>

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